October 1975

Sourcebook to Pathways to Social Planning

Ministry of
Community and
Social Services
Ontario

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Part I
Abstracts

Social Planning:
Past and Present

Some Reflections on the History of Social Planning in Ontario

Albert Rose

Once two or more organizations were developed to serve individuals and families in any Ontario Community during the nineteenth century, the major concerns of social planning became evident to influential citizens; i.e., coordination and avoidance of duplication of both services and funding. Although municipal governments were reluctant and incapable of assuming responsibilities for many aspects of social welfare, they often supported voluntary action to meet needs such as child protection. Although voluntary institutions flourished during the nineteenth century, they could not meet the needs of a growing industrial society. One of the first efforts to rationalize grants was the Charity Aid Act of 1874, but it did not provide the requisite public control. Another early effort to integrate was the Associated Charities, formed in 1887 in Toronto. Its counterparts were the Social Service Council of Ontario, founded in 1908, and on the national level the Moral and Social Reform Council.

Dr. Rose divides the development of social planning in Ontario into three periods. The first thirty years were the period of organized morality when the clergy were especially active. The middle period from 1929 to 1954 was the period of social investigation and research, when public responsibility for basic human needs became established with social security and other legislation. This was superimposed on the two traditions of voluntary action, based on charitable and religious motives, and of local responsibility, a tradition which had remained strong. From the new emphasis on social investigation and research came the cost of living studies which had substantial impact on the development of social security. The third period from 1955 to the present is called "planning for social action" because of intense dissatisfaction with both public and voluntary services. There was concern with the poverty of so many families amid apparent affluence and regional disparities. Social planning councils undertook needs and resources studies as a first approach to their transformation into more appropriate bodies capable of planning for social change in metropolitan areas. This has been paralleled by the Task Force on Community and

Social Services which was a needs and resources study in the public sector. These were all soul-searching self-studies of responsibilities and relationships within the network of voluntary and public services.

In historical perspective, planning and funding together have been a major issue since the last century. Planning means looking at needs and resources as they are now and in terms of future requirements. However, the meaning of social has expanded to confusing dimensions, but short of the totalitarianism of other societies. The lack of agreement on meaning obstructs definition of appropriate responsibilities for both public and private sectors. Should planning be integrated or independent of fund raising?

The social planning councils claim to integrate public and private but the extent of public involvement is questioned. The councils continue to press for block funding from tax revenues but there is reluctance to go beyond project funding. The councils claim to be the traditional and logical experimental agents of social change, but the facts of this claim are challenged. Similarly, claims to independence and representativeness are supported by some and denied by others with the assertion that they are dominated by elites of the best educated and most knowledgeable.

In an examination of its future role, the Provincial Government must decide whether it will assign the responsibility in social planning to a department of the Regional Governments, or whether it will call upon the voluntary planning agencies to work closely with such governments and perhaps to receive financial support from them.

It was well into the 1950's before social planning under public auspices could be seen at the local or provincial levels. Nevertheless Wharf and Carter have asserted that public agencies have significant advantages for overcoming the problems of inaccessibility, fragmentation and discontinuity. One could argue that the entire provincial governmental structure is now directed towards "social planning" and "social policy." The policies and programmes of many ministries are significantly related to the standard of living and quality of life. Even much land use planning is debated with reference to the quality of life. One could assert that social planning is a public

activity to be exercised by public agencies. But in the absence of governmental assumption of such responsibility, there may be no case for transferring the responsibility from the existing voluntary social planning bodies. Pre-policy documentation such as the Ministry brief on Housing and Social Policy in Ontario, is evidence of partial governmental assumption of responsibility. Short of total assumption what division of responsibility can there be? Voluntary social planning represents an important form of citizen participation in governmental planning but funding is a dilemma. For the voluntary bodies to maintain identity and automony, and avoid goal deflection and dependence they should use government funding sparingly.

Social Planning Functions and Social Planning Organizations

Brian Wharf

Conflicting and unconnected social programmes exacerbate rather than resolve the social problems facing many consumers. There are gaps between programmes which should compliment one another. Consumers are unable to secure the services they need because programmes are planned in isolation from one another. "Somewhere in the system, someone isn't talking to anyone."

Planning functions must be clearly identified and explicitly related to organizational structures. Planning for prevention and advocacy must be undertaken by organizations specifically created for these functions and having no responsibility for other functions. On the other hand, administrative and programme planning functions are undertaken in conjunction with responsibility for implementation. Locality development may or may not be associated with responsibility for implementation. The sixth planning function is social policy, which is at a higher level involving public wishes and representative government.

Social Policy Objectives

The most crucial issue in social planning is the lack of agreement on objectives at both the more abstract level of social policy and at the middle range of programme planning. In the absence of social policy, what coherence can there be in programme planning? In this respect programme planning operates in a vacuum.

At the abstract philosophical level, social policy is concerned with the quality of life, and in its search for the right ordering of relationships, it demands integrative rather than divisive approaches. The lack of agreement on social policy is demonstrated by the Working Paper on Social Security in Canada. At one point it promotes equity:

> It has been long accepted that the fruits of economic growth should be fairly distributed: that the increases in income which are the product of a growing economy should not be appropriated by the rich or the powerful.

However, it also claims adherence to the principle of independence: Canadians expect to meet their own needs through their own efforts and they expect others to do the same. This is the familiar paradox of equality versus liberty.

The central issue of objectives for social planning and the development of a provincial policy base for social planning has been ignored. Social planning in Ontario constitutes "programmes in search of a policy." Social planning has taken place in a vacuum.

Calls for policies which would enable all people to develop to the limits of their capacity are admirable but not very helpful. The limits of knowledge impede mapping the future. Opinions conflict regarding the desired state of affairs. Fundamental reforms are, therefore, impossible to implement at the present. But the debate around these questions must continue, for only through widespread discussions about the necessity and desirability of change will there emerge some awareness of the consequences of existing, although not always clearly expressed, social policy. These first order changes are properly the domain of public wishes and of the respresentative parliamentary system.

Consensus is lacking on what constitutes a social problem. We do not agree on what the basic values and the true needs of people are. Some see unequal distribution of income as a problem, while others see it as the necessary consequence of competition and self-responsibility. A wide variety of people need to be involved in debate around basic values and true needs.

Middle Range Objectives

At a lower level of abstraction are principles for programme and administrative planning, locality development and advocacy. This level is content with introducing some coherence into the development of social programmes, by means of identifying core themes and supporting locality development and advocacy. This is the range of the possible.

Principles are emerging at the provincial level but securing agreement on these will be difficult because so many organizations are involved in social planning and provision of services. However, within the provincial government there are indications of a search for a leadership role. Middle range policies are needed because of the consequences of programmes being planned in isolation from one another. The central concern at this middle policy level is the struggle to define problems, suggest directions for planning efforts and provide direction for the programmes.

Several middle range policy objectives are suggested. Access to service is one which recognizes a prevailing problem whose resolution has preventive implications. Another is the adequate provision for redress and appeal. A major one is to bring to social planning efforts the coherence they lack. Having programme planning at the district level is one way, and another is the multi-service centre concept which partially compensates for the fragmentation of service among independent organizations. Other thrusts could be the integration of social assistance programmes and the integration of community care programmes under one department.

Mandate

What organization will be given responsibility for planning social services? How much authority and control should it have over other organizations? There are few comprehensive planning mandates in Ontario. Planning is a many splintered thing and opinion is divided between concentrating, or continuing to spread it among government departments and voluntary agencies.

Middle range policy in this province might use existing structures for social planning and develop some new ones, rather than insisting that all planning efforts be conducted under the auspices of the provincial government. Such a policy would recognize that opinions do vary as to what constitutes a social problem and also as to the means of resolving social problems. Such diversity may prove more beneficial than attempting to contain social planning within a single structure. From one locality to another throughout the Province, there is a consistent body of opinion which would support social planning in whatever structure it is now taking place.

The Issue of Linkages

Given the lack of a comprehensive mandate, the issue is how connections can be made among autonomous organizations. What provisions are needed to ensure that the planning efforts of a children's aid society are compatible with those of a regional department of social services, the Ministry of Correctional Services or a Health Council?

The boundaries of departmental mandates act as a severe impediment to any kind of comprehensive planning. The recent moves to reduce the population of training schools for delinquents are progressive and necessary steps. However, the result has been more adolescents coming into the care of children's aid societies without a transfer of funds from correctional services to enable the societies to care for them.

Legitimacy

Planning often results in proposals for change. Since change is resisted, it is vital that those proposing changes be legitimate and credible.

Centrally planned changes proposed from outside are frequently resisted. Provincial programmes are sometimes greeted with suspicion, if not hostility. The recent furor over daycare is an example of insufficient attention to those involved in daycare. Community goodwill sometimes turns against provincial programmes when it could be attracted to more constructive purposes. For example, a central proposal to convert a sanatorium into an institution for retarded persons was opposed by the local association which favoured smaller community-based residences; there was a similar situation in a second community. The provincial government may have resources and mandate but lack the knowledge of local problems and legitimacy required for implementation.

Knowledge

Is there sufficient knowledge to allow social planning to achieve its objectives? It is unrealistic to expect that social problems can be solved merely by increasing the stock of knowledge, but this is not to argue that knowledge is not important. Improving knowledge in the social services

involves conscious experimentation with services and a commitment to evaluate these programmes.

We do not have available the right kind of information to help some consumers. Agencies maintain records of the services they provide, but they make no provision for collecting information around the services that they could not provide. Information on un-met needs is typically left to time-limited and special studies.

Being based on restricted knowledge, proposals developed at Queen's Park sometimes ignore the needs or priorities of local communities and do not take advantage of the considerable knowledge and experience accumulated at the community level. Knowledge of local problems is lacking.
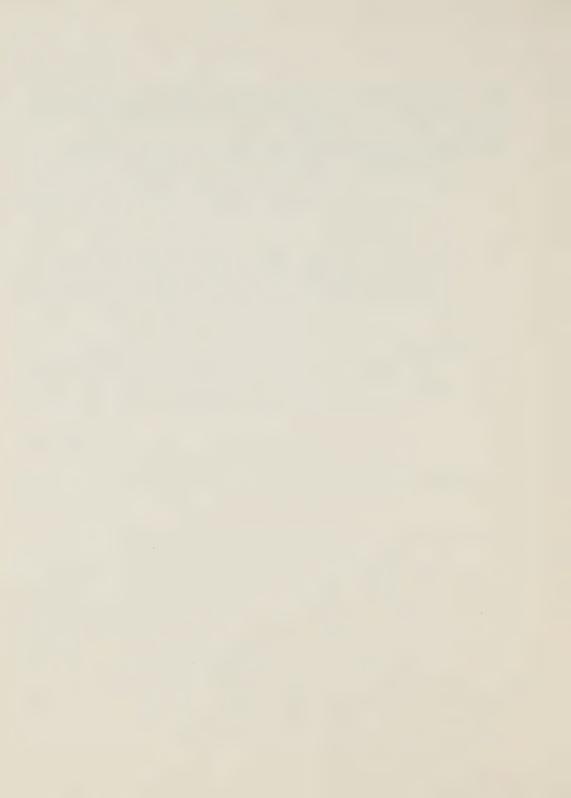
One way to bring about changes is to develop awareness of the consequences of relationships, such as the one between segregated housing and social problems. Knowledge and insights from studies can assit planning for the quality of life and professionals have a responsibility to communicate such information to citizen groups and politicians.

Structure

Efforts have been primarily concerned with structural questions in order to harmonize existing ways of providing service.

There is a myth that social planning is only undertaken by organizations specifically created for this task. It neglects much of the programme planning efforts of direct service organizations, and the locality development and advocacy planning of interest and area-based groups. It has the consequence of expecting too much from organizations like social planning councils, which lack mandate to implement programme proposals. The myth directs attention away from the substance or subject matter of social planning to structural questions; i.e., to who should plan rather than planning about what? The narrow focus on structure emphasizes the questions of what kind of organization is needed to tidy up the messy inter-agency scene. It is seldom recognized that such tidying up requires a comprehensive mandate and explicit authority. The irony is that despite the consensus on the need to develop human resource councils to tidy up, there is great reluctance to award the authority required

for this task to such an organization. There is no more
cherished notion in the souls of human service professionals
than coordination of services, but coordination requires
control. This pre-occupation diverts attention from the
uncomfortable and embarrassing reality that we do not have
sufficient resources to help some people.

Social Planning
in Other Jurisdictions

Social Planning Developments in Alberta

Larry Lundy

Developments in social planning have been tied to reorganization of service delivery but with explicit emphasis on planning, an emphasis missing from the British Columbia and Quebec reforms.

Reorganization of Services in Edmonton: The West 10 Project

The Mayor's Study Committee was formed in 1967 with participation of provincial, municipal and voluntary services and a university. When it recommended testing a comprehensive approach to human resource development in place of the uncoordinated array of separate programmes in one section of the City, the Municipal Council agreed and struck an Advisory Committee with municipal, federal, provincial, school board, united funds and social planning council representatiion, and staff support from a planning group. In 1969 it awarded a contract to Leisure Consultants to design a pilot project. The main themes were integration of services and community participation in decision-making. The proposed Area Council was formed with two thirds of its members elected and others appointed from provincial, municipal, school and voluntary agencies. It met first in March 1971. Core costs are being met by a provincial grant (about $60,000 per year) under the Preventive Social Services Act of 1970.

Provincial Reorganization

Since 1970 there has been a series of reforms at the provincial level, marked by an explicit concern for social planning. The Department of Health and Social Development Act of 1971 not only amalgamated the two departments but provided for "composite health and social services plans." Consolidated local areas were to have boards, which could be elected and which would prepare plans subject to Cabinet approval. Board powers were to go beyond planning to include administration of the statutory health and social services of both provincial and municipal governments. This whole part of the Act was repealed two years later (1973) and replaced with even stronger provisions in the Community Health and Social

Services Act. Each area is to have a plan and a community
board with both planning and administrative powers over
public health services and mandatory municipal social
services. Other services can be included, such as child
abuse action programmes, community mental health, senior
citizen and voluntary help programmes. The new version appears
more accommodating to municipal interests by providing
that the municipal corporation be the community board
where the area is wholly within one municipality. In
other situations there is provision for elections.
Expenses of the community boards are to be met by the
Province. Implementation of these new planning provisions
has begun with the adoption of Edmonton's West 10 Project
as a model for reorganization of service delivery. The
Province has announced that there are to be seven multi-
service centers throughout Edmonton, located so that no
consumer is more than 20 blocks from one. Each center
will serve a maximum of 70,000 people and boundaries are to
be coterminus with those of high schools, recreation and
health authorities. More provincial services will be
included now; i.e., mental health, handicapped and
alcoholism services. These area councils or boards are
expected to develop planning linkages with community boards
(apparently the voluntary sector); to act in an advisory
capacity in relation to direct service agencies; and
to liaise with the provincial Department in respect to any
new service the Department may be considering for their
respective areas.

Social Planning Developments in Nova Scotia

Larry Lundy

As in Alberta, the reorganization of services and the development of planning mechanisms have gone hand in hand at both the local level and at the regional level.

Developments in the City of Halifax

Halifax was one of the first municipalities in Canada to undertake social planning. In the case studies of the Canadian Council on Social Development it was called the "commissioner model." In 1968, a social planner was hired to head the new Social Planning Department which became responsible for social assistance and care of the aged. Reorganization of social assistance administration took place first, leading some to question what this Department had to do with social planning. By the summer of 1973, social assistance had been computerized and decentralized to branch offices. At the same time the multi-service center approach was being developed for a wider range of city services. The cross-departmental Multi-Service Systems Study Committee was developing a comprehensive and integrated approach to the delivery of health, welfare, recreation and cultural services. (See the O'Brien Report on the "Social Amenity Needs Survey").

One of the first assigned functions of the social planner was to assist the Development Department but four years passed until this was put into practice. Now, the Social Planning Department is consulted by the Development Department on the social implications of most major development projects.

Halifax may be unique in having federal agreement to share the costs of social planning under the Canada Assistance Plan. With no specialized planners or staff and pre-occupation with social assistance and services, CAP sharing is conceivable. However, growing involvement in city planning may not be compatible with the present residual character of CAP.

Developments in the Halifax Region

There have been parallel developments in the
region which includes Dartmouth and Halifax County as well.

The 1971 Provincial Act to Provide for Welfare
Councils established an advisory council at the provincial
level. At the regional level, new councils could be
created or existing ones designated. The only one so far
is the Regional Social Planning Council of Halifax-Dartmouth.
Provincial initiative brought it into operation in 1972
to resolve a conflict in the private sector between the old
Welfare Council and the United Appeal. It is funded
jointly by the province, three municipalities and two united
ways. However, the budget is sufficient only for 2½ staff
who spend the greater part of their time assisting the united
ways. It has been criticized as a token of what was
intended originally.

Municipal Reform

The Royal Commission on Education, Public Services and
Provincial-Municipal Relations (Graham Report) has recommended
on the one hand that the province take over all social
assistance and services from the municipalities, and on the other
hand that planning be a major function of a reorganized
municipal system. The takeover recommendation is attenuated
with the suggestion that the children's aid societies and
voluntary family and children's bodies retain their powers
and functions, and also that the metropolitan counties be
permitted to administer social service programmes with full
reimbursement. Decentralization of provincial
operations is proposed, with eleven regional administrations
having boundaries coterminus with those of the to be
consolidated county governments. Each region is to
have a board for housing and social services to advise
the regional director.

There appears to be a contradiction in the proposal
that planning be done by those responsible for implementation
at the municipal level:

The county councillors themselves should
be the planners, making planning
decisions, with strong staff support,
in the areas of physical, social and
financial planning.

Yet, responsiblity for housing and social programmes
would be at the provincial level. There is no apparent
resolution of conflict between provincial government
planning and planning by reformed municipal governments,
a problem which Nova Scotia has in common with other
jurisdictions.

Integrated Services in British Columbia

Brian Wharf

Reorganization of social services was announced by the Provincial Government in October 1973. It is to be a two-tiered system of regional and local resource boards with Vancouver's as the first.

Control of Services

There is a commitment to citizen control. The legislation provides for direct election of 10 citizens to each of the local boards, each of which send a member to the regional board. On the regional board are other appointed members from the municipal council, parks, school, health, and united community services, and three appointed by the Minister. The Province holds overall responsibility for policies and budgets and the regional resource boards allocate funds to the local boards for the services they operate. This substitutes geographic for functional divisions in funding services. The same jealousies, in-fighting, lobbying and power plays will also be a feature of the new arrangement. Conflicts over resource allocation are inevitable but recognizing this reality takes nothing away from the concept of community control.

There has been criticism of the exclusion of municipal officials, of the degree of provincial control over the resource boards, and of the extension of government by special purpose agencies. It is open to the charge that self-governing functional areas erode municipal powers and fragment policies and budgets. If social services, in addition to schools, health services, parks and recreation, water supply and metropolitan planning are controlled by independent bodies, the capacity of municipal government to develop coherent, comprehensive and concerted municipal policies is severely weakened. When state and local governments were bypassed during the United States' War on Poverty, local elected officials resented the curtailing of their power and strove to regain control of social programmes.

The Integration Concept

The integrated services system in Vancouver includes those services formerly provided by the two children's aid societies, family service agencies, the City Welfare Department and the Juvenile and Family Court. In addition, the local community centers will provide community development and information services. This brings services to families and children into a single service system.

There is strong commitment to the notion that only if services are integrated under one administrative structure will they be accountable, effective and efficient. This assumption ignores the advantages of separately organized services with distinctly different philosophies and methods of helping. Integrated services can promote accountability and can serve to indicate with some precision the gaps and inadequacies of services. If some flexibility is retained, an integrated core service system might well serve to point out the need for very specialized and separately organized services. Total integration may be unworkable.

Relationships with other Service Systems

It is surprising that the Provincial Government did not offer regions the opportunity to design services appropriate to their own regions. Some may have chosen to provide social services through the educational system, others may have combined health and social services and some may have preferred the Blue Report model. There is no mention of the need for explicit connections between social and physical (environmental) planning.

Responsibility for Planning

The division of responsibility is imprecise with respect to planning. In Vancouver it is divided between a public planning department and a voluntary fund-raising and planning organization. In the reorganization there is no mention of the roles to be played by planning organizations.

There is no mention of the need for advocacy planning. Since citizens control the services, it is assumed that programmes will be the best possible. Such an assumption ignores the possibility of strong interest groups ruling at the community or regional level and developing programmes which cater to their own narrow interests. The need for advocacy planning is particularly evident when so much power is concentrated in one source.

Health and Social Services in Quebec

Brian Wharf

Health and social services were drastically restructured by the Health Services and Social Services Act of 1971 (Chapter 48, better known as Bill 65). The expressed objectives were accessibility, equity, integration, citizen involvement and regional differentiation.

Structure

Each region has a council with members appointed by the provincial and municipal governments and representatives from the lower tier of "centers." Two conflicting objectives have been assigned to the regional councils. They are expected to supervise and coordinate services within respective regions. On the other hand, they are to encourage participation and receive complaints from service users. If the councils represent and control the service centers, can they also be impartial judges of complaints and agents of animation encouraging citizen involvement? They are likely to concern themselves more with the institutions than with the public.

The lower tier consists of four types of centers:

Local Community Service Centers (LCSC) are essentially community health centers. Five of eleven board members are directly elected from the area served.

Social Service Centers are multi-service centers providing the personal social services formerly provided by specialized agencies.

Hospital Centers group several hospitals under one board.

Reception Centers group institutions for the aged, juveniles, chronically ill, etc.

Control

While the spirit of Bill 65 appears to favour
decentralized services and local control, the specific
provisions militate against local control. The Province
has kept effective control of budgets and of decisions
regarding changes in existing programmes and the devel-
opment of new ones. In time, the regional councils may gain
control of budgets and decision-making. If they lobby
for increased power, the Provincial Government may find
it difficult to resist delegating some authority.

Citizen Participation

Conflict in some boards has already erupted
between professionals and radical user members. Given
the political climate in Quebec, it may be that Bill 65
has provided a legitimate opportunity for those who wish
to further radical causes and movements to do so in the
name of securing public participation. If so, the objective
of gaining public involvement may yet have far greater
impact than the objective of integrating social
and health services.

Integration of Services

The Social Service Centers have substituted
functional and divisional boundaries for agency ones.
Although there has been considerable simplification of the
network of formerly independent agencies in Montreal,
it has not eradicated all service boundaries, particularly
those based on religion. Montreal has three LCSC's
(Catholic, Protestant and Jewish).

The Quebec plan, like British Columbia's, assumes
that one-stop service centers will be able to serve a
wide variety of consumers, ranging from the deviant to
the respectable. Although the LCSC is specified
as the access point in the new network of health and social
services, schools and neighbourhood information centers
are equally appropriate access points. The Ville-Marie
Social Service Center plans to establish intake and
referral units on a neighbourhood basis as the entry point
for the service, apparently duplicating the intake role of
the LCSC's. These units may then provide entry to social
services with the LCSC's functioning as access points for
health services. This would perpetuate the traditional
division between health and social services.

Research

Research for Planning

Research is one of the necessary supports of planned social change. In the context of social planning, research means systematic and reliable fact-finding, with verifiable and communicable results. The topic is treated here from the perspective of the actual or likely consumer of research services; i.e., the person involved or interested in social planning.

Four kinds of applied research activities contribute to planning. First, there is a great demand for analyses of existing census and survey data and programme records. Second, research literature must be thoroughly searched to maintain our store of knowledge from past experience. The proliferation of published materials, often referred to as the "knowledge explosion," has altered the scale and complexity of literature searching and has escalated the planning need for more immediate access to existing knowledge. The third kind of relevant research activity takes the form of demonstration or action projects which combine research and development. This is where planning results in an experimental course of action and research is needed to evaluate its outcomes. The fourth type of applied research activity is the conventional research project which is of limited use to planners because of the several years often required to complete such original research.

Present State of Research

Social planning presently receives little research support because of the small scale of funding of social research in general. Of the expenditures of the Ministry of Community and Social Services, the research portion fell to 0.15% in the estimates for 1974-75. This rate compares unfavourably with all other ministries which indicated research as a budget category. The Report of the Health Planning Task Force ("Mustard Report") gives 2.20% as the current rate of expenditure in the Ministry of Health, and recommends that it be increased to a target level of 4.50%. Target levels of expenditures on research and development are common practice in industry. Since research is necessary to sustain good social planning, it may be useful to set a target for research expenditures here as well.

The basic problems in providing research to support social planning reflect the higher level problems facing social planning itself. With changing times and re-organizations in governments, the private sector finds itself uncertain about both its own role and the role of the public sector. In this situation of overlapping spheres of responsibility, there is a lack of definition of respective roles, which can inhibit planning.

Behind the prevailing interest in coordinating
research are four concerns:

1. How can a planning group find out what data and
    social statistics are available?

2. How does a planning group find out what research
    has been done?

3. How can a planning group set priorities for the
    research that it wants done and influence the
    selections of research funding bodies?

4. How can a planning group locate the individuals or
    organizations most capable of conducting the
    necessary research?

These concerns arise from recognition that there is much
unwitting duplication in research. The hidden costs include the
failure to learn from mistakes doing the same research in
the past, as well as the failure to produce valid and
reliable knowledge because of low quality design and inadequate
sample size. The proliferation of low grade studies makes it
difficult even to know what to classify as research.

Existing Coordination and Linkages

Recognition of the need for coordination draws attention
to current and potential linkages between the several sectors
involved in social planning research: provincial, municipal,
library, and university, and especially to the initiatives
tending to promote coordination.

Universities are traditional loci of research, rather
little of which has relevance to social planning. At the
national level, the Social Science Research Council helps
coordinate university research and provide links to other
sectors. Of particular interest is its data clearing house
which inventories and indexes quantitative data which is in
machine readable form. It is developing a coordinating role in
relation to the data archives and repositories across Canada,
but does not hold data itself.

A far-reaching revolution is taking place in the library
field. The automation of catalogues is well-advanced, with
the National Library of Canada as the central depository for
Canadian publications. Its automated catalogue (CAN/SDI)
provides current awareness service and retrospective searches
of the literature. The system is little used by people engaged

in social planning, perhaps because few know of its
existence. It makes possible faster and more comprehensive
searches for a fraction of the cost of searching by hand.
Automated storage and retrieval of complete texts is in
operation in the Quic Law Information Systems. It has two
sets of textual data bases; one law and the other natural
environment. These examples give some idea of what is
available now and what will soon be available on a larger
scale to readers of the research literature who need more
efficient ways of finding what they need.

The Canadian Council for Urban and Regional Research
has an automated indexing system which produces a compre-
hensive bibliography with annotations. A useful and distinctive
feature is the geographic index which lists research by
specific locality. The Council is not a depository, but
all listed items are available through the National Library.

In the field of leisure research there is an important
example of an initiative in coordination at the provincial
level: The Ontario Research Council on Leisure (ORCOL).
ORCOL, formed in 1971 to promote and coordinate leisure and
recreation research, is funded by the Ontario Government. It
is an example of a research council which involves both
public and private sectors. Its perspective goes well beyond
that of older research councils, which have been more narrowly
preoccupied with making selections for grants.

Problems

Six general problems are identified. First, social data
and statistics are in great demand but their use is restricted
by lack of access, fragmentation, and discontinuity. Second,
the automated systems for searching the literature on research
are under-used. Third, advice and consultation on research
appear most remote from those who need them most. Fourth,
setting priorities for research relevant to social planning
has received little attention. Fifth, there is a disparity
in the influence of the different parts of the province
on the selection and design of research. Sixth, with the
exception of outdoor recreation, there is no inventory of
the capacities of individuals and institutions for doing
research.

Possibilities for Improvement

The suggested improvements should be weighed according
to the links they provide among those doing research, and
the links they provide between planning bodies and the

information produced by research. The underlying key assumption is that any coordinated system should be visible and accessible to less advantaged planning groups.

Six ways of improving the present situation are suggested. They could be implemented singly or jointly. First, the greatest expressed need is for social data and statistics. In the short run, the sharing and fuller use of existing data could be encouraged. Development of the service capability of centres where data are deposited would take longer and eventually main centres could be expected to conduct surveys expressly designed to meet planning needs.

Second, there could be improved access to research advice and consultation in the short run by means of staff development and training for programme specialists, consultants and administrators. It would take more time to develop a referral network to connect people involved in planning with the research specialists who have the appropriate expertise. In the long run, college courses may be developed to train professionals in consultative skills (both giving and receiving).

Third, more use needs to be made of libraries especially since automated catalogues are bringing fast, full and inexpensive retrospective searches of the literature within the reach of most social planning concerns. In the future, access will become more direct and eventually retrieval and much textual information will become automated.

Fourth, social planning can be expected to increase the need for demonstration and development projects. It is suggested that any increments in funds should be accompanied by more effective liaison among the funding bodies and by harmonization between planning efforts and innovations in services. Liaison between social planning and sources of project funds can improve project selection and increase compatibility between projects and planning efforts.

Fifth, it is suggested that the predictable research needs of a broad band of planning interests could be met by social reports. Besides distributing existing social reports, new ones could be designed specifically for use in planning as more appropriate data becomes available.

Sixth, a research council could bring some coherence to research by advising on the relevance and quality of proposals. Eventually, a council could develop research priorities and initiate calls for project proposals tailored to specified social goals.

Community Information Centres as an Input for Social Planning

Camille Lambert, Jr.

Data, Information and Decision-Making

Can data from information centres be converted into information which is relevant to social planning? To assess this, we should consider the nature of decisions to be made in social planning. In general, these decisions revolve around the fit between defined needs and response to these needs by means of resource development and allocation. However, there is wide variation among models of need response networks.

One model involves deciding at which points intervention would have the greatest impact on improving outcomes; this involves path analysis. A second model is a matrix relating the individual's characteristics which may have something to do with use of service to the availability factors of the delivery system. Other models postulate a synthesis of community agencies into a rational delivery network.

Apart from models, there is the problem of the low probability of successfully entering and completing a service contract. For example, a study has shown that 60% of people requesting social services are turned away without service and 83% of referrals are ineffective. This raises doubt about the reliability and validity of data. Further doubts are raised by taking only demand as the indicator of need to the neglect of latent aspects, and using categories that have little appropriate reference to social planning. These are reasons to doubt whether data from community information centres can be converted into information useful to decision-makers.

Community Information Centres as a Data Source

The central activities of the centres are the development of resource files, information-giving and referral. Lip service has been paid to the use of their data for community planning. In Ontario, during the demonstration period beginning in April 1970, when data from the centres were to be used for measuring community needs and trends, there was no such routine or systematic use of the data from the 15 centres according to Wilson Head.

Community information centres have been active in identifying some of the problems in the delivery system, though not on a systematic basis. They prefer working out such difficulties directly with the agencies involved. They would run the risk of jeopardizing their relationships to the service agencies if they were put in a position of evaluating the quality of services. Centre personnel participate in community planning in an informal way by negotiating changes with agencies and by informal education of agency staff without necessarily leading to advocacy.

Representativeness of Data

How valid are data from the centres as indicators of community need and resource management? Requests for information are recorded on standard inquirer forms. Inquirer data provide a partial picture of expressed demand, and demand for service is only part of the total need in any given problem area. Of those persons who demand a service, only a portion do not know where to get the service. Those who do not know go to a variety of governmental, commercial and other sources of information. Any extrapolation from community information centre data is, at best, limited to that group of people who know they have a problem, want a service for it, are aware of the centres and choose them above other information sources. As an indicator of community need, such data might be used by an information system, but only if collected along with identical data on all inquiries received by police, libraries, etc. No studies have shown any correlation between inquiries received by the centres and community need; thence, the degree as well as the sources of error are unknown.

Error factors can be appreciated by considering the problems of interpretation. Few inquiries can mean five different things:

- lack of need
- lack of awareness of need
- sufficient services to meet need
- lack of awareness of the community
  information centre
- information sought from alternative
  sources

Many inquiries can mean:

- awareness of the centre
- newspaper publicity
- existence of need
- absence of services

Conclusions and Options

Centres provide information about community services to persons who feel they need a service who are aware of the centres, and who make a request of this information source. They are one of many sources of information to the public and to the professional person. As such, the centres, along with other information sources, play a vital role in increasing the contact between the public and the service network. The inquiry forms in current use in centres help them to determine how effectively they are reaching all areas in their community of operation; they operate on the assumption that the greater the number of requests, and the broader the range of requests, the more effective they are in being known to the public.

The community information centre data base cannot justifiably be used to infer community need. It is not representative of a known population. The error factor is influenced by a variety of external forces, many of which are unknown. And without paid, competent personnel, the nature of their operations increase the error component. Thus, their inquirer data are neither valid nor reliable for social planning purposes. Attempts to increase reliability, even costly ones would still result in data useless for information purposes.

There are two inputs into an information system, however, where centre personnel can play a valuable role. Around the identification of social needs, they often have data on a case basis to document emerging problems which cannot be defined statistically and which do not show up on an aggregated basis. A second input for centres is around the resource system. Their resource files, if organized in a matrix consisting of those dimensions deemed significant by the planning group would still be a source for the valuable directory of community services, and would help reveal to the planning group existing inequities, duplications and inconsistencies.

Systems and Funding

Data Systems

Douglas Herman

Present provincial data systems have little
relevance to social planning because they were established
to meet institutional needs. They amount to a multiplicity
of single function systems, each for a discrete organizational
unit, usually smaller than a ministry.

The Proprietary Attitude

Boundaries between units such as branches and
agencies are barriers to intergroup communication. These
administrative units take a proprietary view of their data
systems because they pay for them. This proprietary
attitude results in hoarding of data. It results in
secrecy, simply by omitting to notify other potential users
about the existence of data and thereby avoiding demands
from outside groups. There is even reluctance to share
data within government.

Confidentiality

While there are difficulties in using administrative
records for social planning, there has been a rapid advance
of the technological capacity to extract coordinated data
from such records. Micro data are of great value to the
policy analyst, but they pose a threat to the privacy of
the individual. The threat is not so much that confidential
data will be released, but that cross-referencing of data
will allow individuals to be identified inadvertently.

The implementation of data systems may be delayed
due to the design work needed to assure confidentiality.
In establishing data banks, it is important to emphasize
that it is the incidence and distribution of social
phenomena and trends that are of interest and not invasion
of personal privacy. The value of social data lies in
aggregated information rather than in information about
individuals.

Data Standards

Administrative needs for data have taken precedence over research, evaluation and planning needs. It is difficult to meet these other needs because data standards are lacking. There are serious incompatibilities between computers, programming languages and data codes. Many data in computer files are not conformable. Different codes have been used by different agencies and these are often unique, single-purpose codes, making comparisons impossible. Even definitions are inconsistent at times. These are the problems of data standards.

Sometimes the parochial need that gave rise to a data system could not justify computerization which would have met important needs of other agencies; an example is vital statistics.

About two dozen municipalities, with 40 percent of the Province's population, have some computer capacity of their own and a few others have time-sharing arrangements. However, most use "non-intelligent" bookkeeping machines or assemble social data manually. The result is a hodge-podge incapable of interacting in any meaningful way. Data fed forward to the Province arrive in a variety of modalities; tape, cards and written.

Even when standardized social data become available, there will be a need to summarize and interpret the statistics to make them relevant to the least statistically sophisticated user. Computer mapping techniques and some social indicators give community profiles a high level of interpretability.

In most social data the basic unit is the individual and profile information is collected about him. By contrast, most physical data for urban planning are predicated upon a geographic location. Physical and social data meet in community planning questions, but all too often cannot be combined because addresses of individual users of services may be stored in manual files while profile information is stored on computer tape. This situation arises because many are unaware of the potential of geo-coding systems for linking information about people with information about their environments.

Information Flow

Nearly all existing provincial data networks are of a one-way "data take" type, rather than a two-way "feed forward/feedback" type. They suffer from having a care-taking character as opposed to a dynamic interactive one. While governments endorse the notion of involving external agencies and individuals in the policy formation process, they have not disseminated data needed for policy inputs from outside government. Little effort is expended on making data meaningful to people outside government.

Since responsibility is apportioned among several levels of government, social information networks may require plural sponsorship to be applied effectively to social planning. However, agreements have usually required that social data be passed along to the next higher level of government without a return flow of information. It is not surprising that local governments resist information systems proposed by senior governments. An information network can involve a two-way flow of useful information and can be used as a magnet rather than a club.

Needs for Data

Public policy making inevitably involves relationships between agencies at multiple levels of government and inter-disciplinary dimensions of relevant knowledge, data and technique. However, the existing systems are grossly inadequate for such demands.

There is hardly any group of users who do not call for faster and more reliable data. In contrast to the Provincial Government, municipal users are more concerned with small area statistics and structural rather than trend data. Universities want extensive historical data. Quasi-governmental agencies such as children's aid societies have extensive data needs.

The experience of some governments and major industries suggests that one percent of the total budget may be required for information needs.

Coordination

The Committee on Government Productivity found a
lack of cooperation among ministeries in gathering data
in spite of overlapping. COGP recommended a central stat-
istical agency to be responsible for surveys, coordination
of inter-ministry activities, establishment of standards
for common data elements and indexing of data files.
This was not implemented and there is still no focal
point for standards and coordination of data systems.

There are three components to the coordination
problem: 1. inter-ministry, 2. federal-provincial, and
3. provincial-other group. Considerable effort is being
expended on inter-ministry coordination, some on provincial-
federal but little on coordination between the Provincial
Government and other groups. There is a new approach
to inter-ministry coordination with the idea of statistical
focal points on groups to serve the data needs of several
ministries in a particular area of concern. For example,
a central Strategic Evaluation and Labour Market Information
and Analysis Unit has been suggested. An example of data
cooperation rather than coordination is the cost sharing
by three ministries in a routine computer analysis package
for the master file of Immigrant Landing Records for
Ontario Destinations which is received periodically from
the Federal Government. Subsequently, agencies in more
ministries have expressed interest. The general question
of cost sharing may prove an insurmountable problem for
cooperation in more complex situations where the parties
have different levels of interest. Another example of
a statistical focal point is the 1971 Census Data User's
Committee, associated with the Ontario Statistical
Center, through which Statistics Canada disseminates data
to all the provincial ministries. What appears to be
evolving is a series of responsibility centers for statistics
which are, to some degree, divorced from the narrow
constraints of ministry mandates.

No concerted effort has been made to provide
useful data to the other groups involved in the planning
process. In the recently published Project Overview
Statement of the Local Government Management Project, the
strategic planning of municipalities (involving setting
comprehensive goals and objectives) is considered to
require information from several sources. Much of this
information can only be obtained from provincial agencies
which are capable of analyzing the data. However, there

are no focal points in the Provincial Government to which
the municipalities can turn. There is no provision
for users in the private sector, such as universities and
social planning councils. If a major goal of social
statistics is to help develop a well informed public,
there will need to be some provision for these other groups
of consumers of social data.

Systems of Functional Information

Alan Cohen

Planning is a scheme for doing which links
information about the needs of people to a process of making
decisions. This can be accomplished by either of two
strategies, one the old incremental approach which uses
objects of expenditure in budgeting, and the other the
comprehensive systems approach in the spirit of PPBS
(Planning Programming Budgeting Systems).

Information and Social Planning

Social systems planning has no operating applications
in any provincial government. Vancouver has the most
comprehensive social systems planning operation in Canada
with a network of 30 social service agencies.   Generally,
there has been little emphasis on the information needs
inherent in either incremental or systems planning. Data
is only data unless it can be used for decision making,
and only then does it become information. Existing
information is not even adequate to determine what
organizations are doing, let alone provide more
sophisticated information on the effects of what
they do. How can you plan when you do not know what you
are planning for?

There are data in the form of budget records,
statistics on staff employed and numbers of clients
served. A shortcoming of the traditional classification by
"objects of income and expenditures" is that it does not
identify how resources are deployed to programmes. There
have been large discrepencies between what agencies thought
they were doing and what they actually did in deploying
resources to programmes.

Functional Information

A functional information base means allocation of
all input resources to programmes and services, rather

than to objects of expenditures. Functional budgeting is linked to allocations, and functional accounting to agency operations. They lead to greater emphasis on evaluation of services.

The lack of a common information and reporting language between different funding sources creates confusion throughout the programme information network. Compatibility of the components of budgeting and accounting is necessary to benefit from a functional information base.

Advantages of a Functional Information Base

A functional information base will create a more receptive environment for social planning by reflecting what resources are actually providing what programmes. Another advantage is that it encourages all levels to focus on ends rather than means. Collection of unit cost information in relation to benefits to the people served leads to questions about effectiveness and to evaluative research on similarly defined services. A functional information base reduces perceived threats to workers and administrators. This data can be called a pre-planning information base when policy making follows data collection.

Uniformity and Information

The key is uniformity in the definition of services and in the clusters of services that constitute programmes to meet the needs of people. The need for uniform language and interfaceability of data has been recognized. Present data systems are of very uneven quality and most do not interface with each other and are not retrievable. Often the existence of data is unknown and therefore unused by potential users.

Uniform definitions and a common data language are not easy to formulate. Effective comparison and evaluation of existing services requires consensus on which services

are of the same kind. A functional information base using
common service definitions and uniform data collection
can increase the potential for more effective social
planning, regardless of who assumes responsibility for
planning.

Volunteered
Papers

An Enlarged Concept of Municipal Planning Development

Peter Loebel

Section 12 of the Planning Act

Section 12 could serve as a mandate for an enlarged role for municipal planning and development authorities. This Section requires that "every planning board shall investigate and survey the physical, social and economic conditions in relation to the development of the planning area." How can this be used to plan, co-ordinate and develop the social services? Specifically, this refers to the programmes and facilities that are designed to attain social welfare, health and leisure time goals.

The extension of planning board activity to encompass the social services, as well as the physical, presents a new emphasis in the interpretation most planning boards would ascribe to the term "social conditions." While there is nothing to suggest that Section 12 was ever intended to be particularly relevant to the planning, co-ordination and development of social services; an interpretation of "social conditions" that underlines this perspective is, in fact, consistent with the planning board duties listed in this Section of the Act.

The Social Demonstration Project

This particular interpretation of Section 12 is reflected in the terms of reference for a demonstration project that is being administered through the Neighbourhood Improvement Programmes in the Town of Almonte and the cities of Ottawa and Thunder Bay. The Neighbourhood Improvement Programmes with emphasis on involving low and moderate income residents in upgrading and preserving the housing, amenities and character of their neighbourhoods, provide a specific basis for studying social conditions, identifying problems that are obstacles to attaining desired social conditions and preparing recommendations that would complement the requirement specified in Section 12.

The demonstrations have three aims:

(1)   Integrate a social component that is particularly oriented to attaining social welfare goals into the concepts of planning and development. Municipal planning and development are to be broadened to encompass social planning and social development. The result would be a coordination of planning to attain desired social conditions or goals with planning to attain desired physical goals.

(2)   Widen the range of interest groups which
are expected to participate in the planning
and development processes facilitated under the
Planning Act.

(3)   Extend existing mechanisms for coordinating
the planning of land use services so that these
include the planning and development of
related social welfare services.

The Voluntary Social Planning Councils

The Hanson Report questioned the desirability
of the Province encouraging voluntary councils to undertake
planning, coordinating and development activities. Using
the municipal planning process to attain social service
goals is consistent with a tradition that has been part
of municipal government. The municipal planners' emphasis
on coordination, on preventing problems and orientation to
the future has not been generally shared by social planning
agencies in Canada. In social agencies there has been
resistance to focussing on unmet needs.

The social welfare planning activities referred to
above are ones which have traditionally taken place within
the scope of the functions that social planning councils
have defined as appropriate for themselves. The aims
outlined as a basis for the demonstration project require
that the functions involving planning, coordination
and development activities be assigned to municipal planners,
and that there be an increase in the assortment of skills
and experience available to planning boards and departments.
In this respect, four of the six illustrations of this
function that were cited by the social planning councils
are perceived by the author as suitable for being processed
within the terms of reference assigned to planning boards
under Section 12.

The illustrations include: residential facilities
for mentally retarded persons, community care for the aged
and handicapped, regional social services development and
multi-service units.

Involving Voluntary Agencies

Decision-makers who control resources are expected to include municipal officials as well as representatives of voluntary agencies like those that are financed through united ways, hospitals, schools, libraries and local associations of residents. This list is extended to include voluntary as well as governmental bodies that exercise responsibilities in the local planning area. The rationale is on the basis that voluntary agencies derive substantial proportions of their budgets from monies provided under legislative acts. Governments provide these funds on the basis of their policies which say that resources to attain certain kinds of programmes and facilities can be better administered by voluntary organizations than by government and that government has a role in enabling this kind of development.

Delivery of Social Work Services at the Community Level in Scotland

John Gandy

> The delivery of service in the right
> way to the right person at the right
> time involves a complex of managerial,
> administrative and professional pro-
> cesses.

Reorganization

The Social Work (Scotland) Act of 1968 reorganized and
decentralized personal services earlier, and in a more far
reaching way than the Seebohm reforms in England. It was
a sharp break with the past in response to complaints of
gaps in service, inaccessibility, overlapping and waste;
complaints of problem families being served by as many as
eight different agencies, inadequate scope for assessing need
as a whole, and inefficiency in using scarce professionals.

A major influence on the reorganization was the
Kilbrandon Committee which, in 1964, recommended that
children's panels replace the juvenile courts. Establish-
ment of these panels has affected delivery of all services
at the area level. The 1966 White Paper on Social Work and the
Community also broke with tradition in proposing social work
departments to be established by local authorities (munici-
palities) to:

1. administer all programmes that used social workers
    and met personal needs;

2. provide a single "door" in place of a number of
    small, separate and specialized services, and

3. work through easily accessible area offices
    (throughout a municipality).

The White Paper assured local councils that reorganization
would not appreciably increase the cost of providing social
services. The result was that the capacity of local social
work departments to meet the demands for services has been
greatly impaired because of lack of staff and other resources
as local authorities have been reluctant to make large increases
in appropriations. Local councils have been reluctant to
provide financial support for new or expanding preventive
programmes that go beyond the amelioration of specific conditions.

The attitude and response of councillors may point up the
failing or inability of social authorities to bridge the
gap between the social services that society says that it
wants and the resources it is prepared to put into these
services.

The legislation made specific provisions for transfer-
ring probation, after care and certain health services to the
new social work departments including responsibility for the
physically and mentally handicapped, children in need of care
or support and services to the courts. This brought together
welfare, mental, health, child care, and probation officers,
each with their own level and type of education required for
certification, and very specialized experience which proved
dysfunctional to the operation of the reorganized departments.
The new departments were to replace the specialized approach
with a generic or generalist one. By the generic approach
was meant a clear break from the former separate and specialized
services to mixed caseloads in the new comprehensive social
work departments.

To monitor effects of the reorganization, the University
of Edinburgh established the Rowntree Working Party. It made
a proposal to replace the "single door" concept which had
seemed to suggest "growth in the strength of authority against
the citizen, by narrowing the number of 'strategies' available
to citizens when choosing the service from which help is to be
sought." The now proposed accessibility concept meant a
variety of services that would be comprehensive and made
available in a flexible way. They also recommended that an
area office serve 50,000 persons with a staff team of ten to
twelve social workers and supporting staff, a guideline which
received general acceptance.

The author studied four area teams firsthand, while he
was in Scotland. The teams included senior social workers,
family aides and social work assistants, trainee social workers,
home help supervisors, occupational therapists, community
development officers, administrative assistants and area
clerks. The size of the teams ranged from 12 to 24 staff, each
serving urban catchment areas with the populations ranging from
30,000 to 60,000. This was five years after reorganization.

Within government the Social Work Services Group which
had been created in March 1967 from the Scottish Home and
Health Department and the Scottish Education Department,
convened a Working Party for the Organization of Social Work
Departments in Local Authorities. It paralleled the Rowntree
Working Party.

Now there are 53 social work departments and virtually
all are using area teams that have responsibility for
a designated catchment area. This integration of the several
social service systems into a universalistic one had problems
produced by the following:

1.   The programmes had enjoyed different valuations
      by the public.

2.   They had been subject to different professional
      dominance, e.g. health, probation, social work; and

3.   They involved quite distinct patterns and
      requirements in the delivery of service.

It should be noted that there are 25 acts, rules, procedures
or regulations which affect directly the eligibility of clients
for service, or set forth the statutory responsibilities for
supervision or the conditions under which service is provided.

Reorganization has placed in the departments almost all
governmental programmes that employ trained social workers,
although few were trained except in the probation service.

Area Teams in Action

The four area teams which were studied in detail are
discussed under the following headings:

- decentralization and accessibility of area offices;
- deployment of staff;
- responsibilities of different levels of staff;
- generic approach to delivery of service;
- intake and allocation;
- use of staff with different kinds and levels of
  training.

What has taken place is dispersion to branch offices with little
of the autonomy that decentralization implies. Dispersion does
not automatically improve accessibility and three of the four
offices were so ill-located that there was isolation instead of
convenience of access. As for deployment of staff, the tendency
was to assign a worker all the cases from a geographic unit.
There were problems with this system at times of high staff
turnover because of difficulty in reassigning cases with the
result that modifications of this so-called "patch" system
were being tried.

        Staff roles and responsibilities followed the
traditional hierarchical pyramid with a sharp division between
professional and clerical staff. This was based on the notion
that the service and administrative components are separate.
Home help organizers were not integrated into the teams but the
relationship was one of "peaceful coexistence", usually under
the same roof. Most of the occupational therapists were not
under the same roof, but were more integrated into the area
teams. They were an example of dual accountability as they
were ultimately responsible to the supervising occupational
therapists at the central office while responsible to the area
office for their day-to-day work. They attended both area
team meetings and meetings of all occupational therapists in
the local department. The family aides had neither job
descriptions nor training. Like social work assistants they
did not deal with statutory cases involved with the children's
panels and courts, but rather with financial problems. Trainee
social workers were recruited because of the shortage of trained
workers, and although they were carrying substantially the
same kinds and sizes of caseloads as the qualified social
workers, they had received little training on the job; they
were expected to undertake fulltime studies in social work at
the end of two years. Only one team was doing some group work
and all teams rejected any suggestion of using volunteers.
Although each of the senior social workers was supervising
from three to 4½ staff, practically all were engaged in direct
practice, most with caseloads ranging from half to almost the
full standard load of 45 cases. This was because of the staff
shortage and the result was that they had little time for
supervising, work in the community, staff development and
teaching - all considered important dimensions of the role
of senior social worker. The young and inexperienced workers were
the most adversely affected. The community development officers
were not responsible to the team and there were some indications
that they were working at cross purposes. There was a lack
of innovation or experimentation by any of the teams in
methods of service delivery and deployment of staff.

        In view of the importance of the decisions that are taken
at the point of intake, it is not surprising that there was
considerable support for the appointment of trained and
experienced staff to specialize in intake and the provision of
brief services. In practice, direct service staff, including
untrained and inexperienced aides, trainees and assistants,
rotated as duty officers to handle intake and emergencies.
Sometimes the allocation of cases for ongoing service was brought
to a standstill by the frequent turnover of staff and the time
lag between staff leaving and the arrival of replacements.
For the most part, the senior staff took responsibility for
case allocation thereby undermining any team concept of
shared responsibility. Specialists located in central offices
were of little value to area teams.

    With reorganization came the new expectation that the
local social work departments would take a more aggressive role
in identifying community needs and developing new programmes
through the area teams. Only one area had community workers
and they were administratively separate from the area social
work team. They feared that closer identification with social
workers would make more difficult their role as advocate and
enabler for citizen groups. This change agent role sometimes
brought them into direct conflict with the area team and their
commitment to the citizens' groups was often stronger than to
the department. In Scotland, the use of volunteers through
statutory departments has been almost nonexistent. During 1974,
some local social work departments were recruiting community
organization officers to promote working relationships between
area teams and voluntary organizations. Such volunteer involve-
ment could increase community understanding of social problems
and services and reduce some of the pressure on social work
staff by undertaking such activities as friendly visiting.

Next Steps in the Development of Area Social Work Teams

    (i)   Local social work departments should train the
           area senior social workers in management and
           administration and make it mandatory that all
           persons appointed as area officers team leaders have
           such training beforehand.

    (ii)   High priority should be given to staff development
           programmes that will prepare staff to function as a
           team with special emphasis on the contributions of
           untrained and non-social work staff.

    (iii) Area teams have been operating on a crisis and
           reactive basis giving little attention to preventive
           services.

    (iv)   The requests for financial assistance could be
           reduced by having the Supplementary Benefits
           Commission assume greater responsibility.

    (v)   The problem of substantial increases in referrals
           from the children's panels which vary greatly
           in volume from one area to another, could be
           dealt with by developing a formula for staffing
           area teams that related the total authorized staff
           complement to the number and proportion of such
           mandatory cases.

(vi) Placing certain specialized services in the
catchment areas of social work teams to operate
as separate units will reinforce the concept
of the area team as branch office, rather
than as decentralized offices with autonomy in
the area of programme development. This practice
makes experimentation and innovation in the
area team less likely.

(vii) The involvement of staff other than social workers
as full members of the team will require consider-
able redefinition of roles. The greater and
more meaningful involvement of the clerical staff
is crucial to achieving full participation and
input commensurate with their potential.

(viii) Team catchment areas with 50,000 people which
include non-urban areas are too large, but are
manageable in solely urban areas.

(ix) Community workers operating outside the framework
of the area team create problems for the department
and team and it is obviously confusing to local
residents to be asked to relate to staff with
different orientations from the same department,
both of whom purport to be interested in helping
people with their problems.

(x) Despite all the problems, the sharp and decisive
break with the past greatly enhanced the possibilities
of the ultimate success of a new and different
approach to the delivery of services. The staff
who had vested interests in the services as they
existed prior to reorganization, were able to
mount little effective resistance to the changes
which would not have been the case if the changes
had been introduced gradually.

Principles of Development, Function and Methods of Social Planning

John Frei

Process of Change

> Ten years ago there were only three or
> four local 'community planning' agencies
> in 'human care'. We now stand in a
> forest of different agencies, created
> largely by Federal directive which has
> planning, programming and disbursement
> of financial largesse as its objectives.
> They range from regions down to the neigh-
> bourhood level. Like rabbits, they have
> an uncanny way of multiplying themselves –
> the quickest way to distribute planning
> mediocrity uniformly. (D. MacDonald,
> "Re-examination of the roles of planning
> under the United Way", in Community 1974,
> 49:1, 5).

The turbulence is caused by the increased complexity
and size of the environmental field and by the increased
and unpredictable interdependence of its component organi-
zations working at an accelerated and uneven rate of change.
In this environment, the organizations cannot adapt through
their direct interaction by contractual means. The automatic
control breaks down and new forms of organization have to
be developed.

If we can combine the two basic theories, first of the
turbulent environment in which our social system functions
and in which the automatic control has broken down, and the
second, of the danger of breakdown of our system which could
be caused by disorganized, excessive, or multifunctional change,
we can propose a hypothesis: The more complex and turbulent
the organizational environment of a social system becomes and
the more open it is to outside influence, the more necessary
it becomes to introduce into the system an active planning
intervention to keep it functioning in a coordinated and
socially acceptable way.

Planning: A Decision-making Process

Etzioni developed a model of three main methods of decision-making.

(i) Comprehensive rationality means the decision-maker takes not just one goal and the requirements of its servicing into account in his selection of action but also considers the relations among various goals.

(ii) Incrementalism, referred to as the art of muddling through, is normally used when a rational approach cannot be applied. The decision-maker in this case tries to find a relatively satisfactory solution without an attempt to find the maximum service value or the optimal combination of services by rationalistic analysis.

(iii) Mixed-scanning differentiates fundamental decisions from bit (or item) decisions. Through an exploration of the main alternatives, the bit decisions are made incrementally but within the context set by fundamental decisions. (The Active Society, New York: Free Press, 1968, 249-283).

Definition of Social Planning

Social planning is a conscious and organized intervention process introducing or coordinating problem solving efforts in different human activities in such a way as to produce a maximum possible combined effect enhancing the physical and social well-being of the maximum possible number of people in the given social system, with the optimum use of available resources.

The People Concerned

The aim of social planning is to include in any planned action the social element which respects or even defends the rights of people on whom such action impinges. This is especially important for any research needed to prepare solid foundations for the planner's recommendations and the following action decisions.

Communication with the people concerned as well as with the decision-makers has an effect on learning by both parties. Any disagreement can be eliminated easily or used constructively to improve the planning process and make it acceptable to both if there is good communication. The planner should be prepared to act as a broker to reach consensus on issues. If need be, he has to act even as an advocate on behalf of the people concerned.

Experience shows that well organized communication leads both the decision-makers and the people concerned to participate in identification of problems, variables to be explored, research and planning design. All of them become co-authors of the plan and then its implementation is accepted easily and carried through.

Conflicting Interests

The most difficult problem in any decision-making is the relation of interfaces or overlapping of the individual system-fields in horizontal as well as vertical societal organization. There is practically no important decision today which would concern only one system. Our systems are all open and the interests, aspirations or goals of each of them can be in conflict with the others.

Gross, in his thesis of social indicators, emphasizes the so called "selectivity-comprehensiveness paradox" consisting of the tension arising between the need to concentrate on strategic variables and the need for a comprehensive view of the problems to be considered as background for planning decisions. In other words, looking at the situation in a microscopic and at the same time macroscopic way, seeing the details against seeing the whole. He suggested that the development of a good system of social indicators and of comprehensive information will enable systematic "scanning", and strategic selection of the criteria needed for good planning decision.

Vickers proposed the "optimizing-balancing" process in which the preferences of the conflicting interests can be balanced so as to respect the maximum possible satisfaction of each of them. He believes in judging one combination of satisfaction against others to find the best. The various processes are weighed or judged to find the necessary balance.

Masse, the General Commissioner of the Plan of the French Government, introduced the "minimax criterion" in planning for evaluation of and arbitration between the desirable and the probable (e.g., between increase of social security payments and any resulting increase of government expenditures and taxes), to find the best possible compromise solution.

All these techniques aim at the compromise of conflicting interests.

Decision Timetable

The tradition of the totally incremental solution of social and societal problems is so deeply ingrained that a change to comprehensive planning will need a change in one of the basic Anglo-Saxon values as well as in the value of self-development and freedom of individuals. We can probably observe the beginning of such a change. The problem of our present situation is whether our society will have enough time to go through this necessary change of values at an orderly pace.

The whole process of planning should be eminently practical. Short cuts are acceptable if timing does not allow for more sophisticated design. The process can last only several weeks, or several months depending on the issue and the conditions in the community. It can be condensed if an emergency arises, but the shorter the time available, the more intensive the process should become.

Part II
Papers

Some Reflections on the History of Social Planning in Ontario

Albert Rose

Some Reflections on the History of Social Planning in Ontario

Introduction

It is not an exaggeration to suggest that, once two or more organizations were developed to offer services to individuals and families in any one Ontario community during the nineteenth century, some of the major concerns of social planning became evident. More specifically, the presence of more than one "social agency" in a town or city aroused in the minds of a number of influential citizens the question of coordination and avoidance of duplication of both services and effort. Not far beneath the surface was the question of funding, because inevitably the existence of a variety of social service organizations would mean appeals for financing, most often directed to the same group of potential donors. Coordination and avoidance of duplication have thus always had both service and financial implications.

"Social planning" was not the customary or even appropriate terminology. The concept of coordination between a group of social service and health agencies in a community is usually considered by historians of social welfare to have begun with the development of the Charity Organization Societies. This agency had its beginnings in England in the late 1860's, took root some ten years later in the United States (the first C.O.S. was formed in Buffalo in 1877), and "began to affect approaches to some welfare problems in Ontario at about the same time".[1] Implicit in its objectives was the coordination of services for children and families, primarily in the interests of efficient and improved services. As the C.O.S.'s developed in several communities, the organization took on many of the features which later were part and parcel of the objectives and attributes of councils of social agencies, welfare councils, and social planning councils as they have emerged in Ontario.

It would not be accurate to infer that planning in the normal sense was entirely absent from Ontario communities and that the notions which became the foundation stones of social planning activity in this province suddenly

emerged in the last quarter of the nineteenth century.
It is a fact, however, that most people lived on farms or
in small villages, and that the towns and cities were relatively
small by comparison with the situation after World War I.
Splane has pointed out:

> Although Upper Canadians in the pre-Confederation
> period were primarily preoccupied with material
> advancement and much distracted by constit-
> utional and political struggles, the period
> was remarkable for the degree of progress in
> the field of social welfare. Many developments
> in the period testify to a deep social
> concern and to a vigorous attack on the
> principal social problems of the times.
> ... The pace of advance prior to
> Confederation had, moreover, been
> accelerating as the wealth of the
> province increased, as its people were
> enabled to turn from an intense
> preoccupation with material development,
> and as increasing population and the
> growth of towns and cities caused an
> intensification of the social problems
> that required action.[2]

Nevertheless, as Ontario reached the last decade
of the past century gross evidence of social deprivation
persisted in the most obvious form. D. C. Masters pointed
to the crude conditions in which many residents of Toronto
lived from the second half of the century.[3] In Splane's
view, much of the progress in Ontario from 1850 was
attributable to the willingness of the people of the
Province to govern and tax themselves at the local level.
However, he stated:

> ... the municipalities have never been
> able to give equal attention to all of the
> functions assigned to them. In the scale
> of municipal priorities, social welfare
> programmes have been apt to rank low. Thus,
> the history of municipal action in social
> welfare during the period provides scant
> support for the view that the level of
> government in closest proximity to human need
> is the one most disposed to meet it ... Even
> where the legislation was mandatory, municipal
> action was by no means assured.[4]

J. J. Kelso wrote shocking newspaper stories about
orphaned and neglected children who roamed the streets of
Ontario cities, particularly in Toronto,[5] much as children
behave a century later in many underdeveloped countries.
It is well known that Kelso's translation of his findings
into political and social action led directly to the
pioneering of legislation – The Children's Protection Act
1888, the organization of the Children's Aid Society of
Toronto in 1891, and The Children's Protection Act of
1893 which created the system of children's aid societies
throughout Ontario. Despite the reluctance and the
incapacity of municipal governments to assume
responsibilities in many aspects of social welfare, they
were often supportive of voluntary action to meet specific
proglems or categories of need, as Splane noted:

> Communities which elected municipal
> governments committed to restricting
> the range of municipal action in social
> welfare paradoxically often gave generous
> support to voluntary institutions that were
> created because of the lack of public
> programmes. Thus, while municipal programmes of
> social welfare remained relatively meagre and
> ill-developed, private welfare flourished.
> From the 1850's on, the establishment of
> orphanages, hospitals, and houses of refuge
> in the urban centres offers a fair index
> of their growth in wealth and population
> ... There is no doubt that the voluntary
> agencies performed work of the highest
> value to the province, work which it is hard
> to conceive public agencies performing on
> a comparable scale during the nineteenth
> century, but these private institutions
> could not meet all the needs of a growing
> industrial society.[6]

Governmental encouragement of voluntary service was
not without significant difficulties because there were no
clear criteria upon which to assess the requests of these
organizations for financial grants. Moreover, an attempt
to rationalize this problem with the passage of the
Charity Aid Act of 1874 had not provided the requisite
public control.

Lagmuir Inspector of prisons, asylums and
public charities , for example, could not
effect the amalgamation of the two agencies
he found providing the same services to the
same constituency, and conversely the
province could not require a private
institution to extend its services or
its coverage beyond the margins of its own
interest and concern.[7]

A number of efforts to bring together social and
health services and public and voluntary agencies in the
health and welfare field had existed before the onset of
war in 1914. The first attempt to draw together
"isolated islands of charity in Toronto"[8] occurred in 1887
with the formation of the Associated Charities. The authors
of the history of the Ontario Welfare Council stated that
"the new concept of 'joint effort' was contagious" and
resulted in a nation-wide council of churches, charities,
associations, and individuals entitled the Moral and
Social Reform Council of Canada. This organization soon
changed its name to the Social Service Council of Canada
and recognized that emerging Provincial Councils would be
left free to deal with problems, reforms and efforts
that affect their respective spheres.[9] It was on this
foundation in 1908 that the Social Service Council of
Ontario, later the Community Welfare Council of Ontario and
now the Ontario Welfare Council, was developed.

As the Council entered the post-World War I years
the organization committee to cooperate with local councils
found social service councils in six Ontario communities
as well as on the Six Nations Reserve near Brantford.

By 1920, when a conference of social
service councils was called to meet
in Hamilton, the following towns
were also represented: Guelph,
Stratford, Brantford, Woodstock,
Galt, Chatham, Port Hope,
Cobourg, Belleville, Brockville
and Toronto.[10]

The Social Service Council of Ontario was granted a government charter in 1919 which set out the aims of the organization at that time, as follows:

(1)   to encourage, promote, organize and develop all approved forms of work having to do with its objects: community welfare, social service, philanthropy, and charity, in the Province of Ontario and to assist same with counsel and support.

(2)   to study and investigate methods of community and social welfare work.

(3)   to cooperate with public and private agencies.

(4)   to affiliate and cooperate with associations and organizations having the same objects.[11]

At its Annual Meeting in 1920, the Social Service Council adopted resolutions which dealt with such subjects as: improved care of mentally retarded children and adults; commendation of the Provincial Government for its recent legislation to provide mothers' allowances and to ensure minimum wages for women and young workers; "and several condemning race-track betting, prize fights and importation of alcoholic beverages."[12]

An important but related outcome of public expression of concern with the relationship between poverty and grossly inadequate environmental conditions was the initiation of the Bureau of Municipal Research in Toronto in 1914. Although an organization entirely financed by business groups is not usually considered to fall within the purview of "social planning," the Bureau was greatly concerned with housing conditions, the spread of disease, the absence of formal town planning, and the entire matter of transportation facilities - all related to housing and living conditions.

Although it is traditional to view the Victorian era as the age of moralizing and to assume that Western society became more liberal in its attitudes (particularly after World War I), the history of social planning in Ontario does not bear out this generalization. For the purposes of convenient exposition, the development of social planning in the twentieth century can be divided into three periods.

(1)   The period of organized morality, 1900-1929.

(2)   The period of social investigation and research, 1929-1954.

(3)   The period of social planning for social action, 1955-1974.

It will be obvious that such arbitrary time divisions cannot stand up to careful scrutiny, because the matters of concern to social planning organizations and their methods of approaching and dealing with these concerns did not begin or end on some specific date. Ethical considerations were a strong component of the deliberations of councils throughout the Province well into the 1930's and 1940's; attempts at systematic investigation and research appear in the literature well before the onset of the "Great Depression;" and always these organizations considered that they were planning for social action.

The Period of Organized Morality

It is clearly evident from the public addresses and statements of the "pioneers" in the processes indentified as the forerunners of social planning organization that strong elements of moral stricture were a significant ingredient. There are many references to the evils of "drink" and general moral turpitude judged to be underlying causes of major social problems. Since many of the prime movers in this emerging field were clergymen of various denominations,[13] it is not surprising that their pronouncements were replete with strong denunciations of the behaviour of single persons and heads of families.

These early "leaders" were, in fact, on
solid ground. The problem of alcoholic consumption in
Ontario in the period 1865-1919 was a matter of great
concern to government, to churches, and to social
workers. There is no question that family breakdown,
child neglect and poverty were often associated with this
phenomenon. Nevertheless, there are in the literature a
number of curious "associations" between the problems
of people on the one hand and their behaviour on the
other.

There was a continuous concern with mental
retardation which could, in retrospect, be explained
in substantial measure by the absence of services and
facilities to take care of large numbers of so-called
"retarded children" (today it is probable that a substantial
proportion so identified would be described as "emotionally
disturbed"). There was, however, an implication that
immoral behaviour and alcoholism were among the important
causal factors in the prevalence of retardation. Without
the benefit of modern biological research it is even
conceivable that those who deplored behaviour on the part
of parents were substantially correct in the sense that
the children of physically impaired parents could, in
fact, be born with such disabilities.

To deplore the clear (in the visual sense)
association between miserable living conditions, poverty,
child neglect, alcoholism, and behaviour which offended
the current mores seventy-five years ago could serve to
motivate governmental and voluntary action. Sooner or
later, however, the strength of such appeals weakened and
new approaches had to be developed if many community
organizations were to continue. Those who placed strong
emphasis upon more appropriate human behaviour were
rewarded - as a consequence of the first World War and
shortages of grain in the immediate post-war years - by
the passage of laws in Canada, the United States, and other
jurisdictions prohibiting the distillation and sale of

alcoholic beverages. By the late 1920's, however, it
was perfectly clear that this was not the answer to
traditional social problems but that, in fact, prohibition
bread an entirely new set of elements of social breakdown:
organized crime based on bootlegging and gambling, and
an upsurge of violent crimes as well as general
violence.

In 1929, the Social Service Council of Ontario
had reached the point where its aims were no longer consistent
with those of its founding organization, the Social Service
Council of Canada. The Ontario group was granted an
amendment to its charter changing its name to Community
Welfare Council of Ontario. The Council publication,
Social Service, referred to the charter as follows:

> This charter works a distinct advance on
> earlier efforts at defining the aims
> of such councils and indicates a definite
> departure from the arbitrary reform
> programmes which too frequently assumed
> that traditional social and moral dogma
> could solve all the problems presented
> by an increasingly complex society. The
> key-notes of the charter are research,
> knowledge, education, cooperation and
> goodwill. These are the essentials
> of social progress and will long continue
> to be.[14]

By this time the Ontario Council had mounted important
investigations in the fields of mental deficiency and
child welfare, and it hoped to develop a scholarship
plan for students who would undertake advanced work in
"mental hygiene." Consideration was given to the
recruitment of students to the new profession of social
work; the problems of offenders discharged from prison were
to be the subject of a new study.

The onset of world-wide economic depression
by 1930 put the final seal on the disutility of organized
morality as a force for social planning in Ontario and
many other jurisdictions. The economic and social misery
of the next decade could not be blamed on unacceptable

moral behaviour: rather, degraded human behaviour could
be blamed on economic collapse which found one-quarter
of the labour force without employment and federal and
provincial jurisdictions throughout Canada totally unprepared
to meet the impact. There was almost no income security
legislation at the federal level, save on emerging Old
Age Pension programme enacted in 1927.

In Ontario there was no government department
dealing with social welfare or any significant, legislation
which could meet the needs of the destitute,with the
exception of the nominal Mothers' Allowance programme
enacted during the previous war, and traditional "poor
relief" at the local level that was not very different
and no more progressive than that of Great Britain in the
eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

The Period of Social Investigation and Research

It was noted previously that the Ontario Council
incorporated the phrase "to study and investigate methods
of community and social welfare work" in its 1919 charter.
An indication of how far this emerging social planning
organization moved in six years is evident in its programme
outline of 1925:

  (1)   Pressure on government to establish a
         Department of Public Welfare within
         which all social services supported
         through the Provincial Treasury would
         be coordinated and directed.

  (2)   Establishment of juvenile courts and
         child guidance clinics throughout the
         Province be promoted.

  (3)   Encouragement of healthful amusements and
         recreation for all, and active opposition
         to subordination of recreation and
         amusement standards to commercial
         interests.

  (4)   Pressure on government and the public
         to promote adequate care and training
         for children with mental and personality
         defects, through a government system,
         including special classes, training
         schools and, when necessary, custodial
         care.

> (5)   An educational programme of surveys, to
>   give the Council a sound background of
>   information in its role as a consultant
>   organization. [15]

       Throughout the Province the fundamental
issue for all local councils as the depression deepened
was the question of public responsibility for basic human
needs. This was to a substantial degree a matter of
pressure upon the Provincial Government and its "creatures,"
the municipalities. Nevertheless, the tradition of
voluntary action based upon charitable and religious
motives and the tradition of local responsibility remained
strong and served to inhibit public action. The Department
of Public Welfare for Ontario was created in September 1930,
but its programme was emergent and minimal. Moreover,
the essential legislation was not enacted until the passage
of the Unemployment Relief Act in 1935. The importance of
study and research could not be denied.

> A group of Ontario citizens were so
> convinced of the importance of
> collecting adequate data on these
> matters that they formed themselves
> into the Unemployment Research Committee
> of Ontario in the summer of 1931. [16]

       The report of the committee was a significant
contribution to the development of public welfare and was
received enthusiastically by the Community Welfare Council
of Ontario. In its Annual Meeting in 1932 the Council
endorsed the separation of relief from that of public
works as follows:

> This Council has arrived at the conclusion
> that work-making programs are frequently
> more costly than direct relief methods and
> moreover that their social results are not
> of necessity better than those accruing from
> direct relief and that they are subject to
> serious abuses and misunderstandings. [17]

In additional support of the Unemployment Research Committee
the Council urged the senior levels of government to take
into account the "cost and methods of the administration
and social services necessarily associated." [18] Of most
importance, the Council passed a resolution which
questioned:

> the theory which has been generally held
> in the province of Ontario and throughout
> Canada that the primary and ultimate
> obligation for the care of the poor and
> unemployed rests upon the municipality
> to which they belong.[19]

It was clear that Harry Cassidy and his colleagues were
convinced that the devolution of social and financial
responsibility to local municipalities would mean the
denial of relief to many of the unemployed and the
destitute in Ontario communities.

The Welfare Council of Toronto emerged from
its predecessor, The Child Welfare Council, as the 1930's
were drawing to a close. The new Council's major project
was a study of the cost of living in Toronto, originally
proposed and organized by the Federation for Community
Service. The Council broadened the study committee to
include representatives from agencies under a variety of
religious auspices as well as the Health and Public Welfare
Departments of the city. In 1939 the findings were published.[20]
The report, primarily designed to assist public and voluntary
agencies in budgeting with their individual and family
clients, was a defensible publication of social research
and, as such, evoked widespread interest, praise and
criticism.

This study is illustrative of the nature and
quality of the investigative process, which could be carried
on by social planning bodies in Ontario communities up
to and including the years of the Second World War.
Concerned citizens with experience in academic, professional
and business settings were able to come together, examine
and publish material that had a substantial impact on
public policy as well as on voluntary labour-management
negotiations. The first full-time research director was
not appointed until the Welfare Council of Toronto created
a research department at the beginning of 1946. Only
after the war was it possible for the local councils to
embark upon more systematic research, but at least a
decade passed before the available resources permitted
the utilization of the most modern statistical and data
processing techniques.

The emphasis on research was widespread. Almost
all the councils in Ontario recognized that expressions
of concern about social problems and social conditions
in their respective communities would be of little
importance and have little impact if they were not supported
by fact-gathering, data analysis and the presentation of
recommendations based upon systematic investigation. When
the Council in Hamilton was reorganized in 1959, research
was immediately recognized as one of the most important
priorities and it was not accidental that when the Council
was separated from the fund-raising organization in 1966,
it adopted the title Social Planning and Research Council.[21]
When the Welfare Council of Ottawa was provided with new
staff leadership with the engagement of Dr. Joseph E.
Laycock in 1951, one of the major changes implemented
shortly thereafter was a research emphasis. In its
previous studies as a Council of Social Agencies there
has been very little systematic foundation upon which its
recommendations to public and voluntary agencies were based.

Social investigation and research as the major
foci of social planning councils in the province began
to weaken in the late 1950's. The need for systematic
investigation and solid research could not and has not
disappeared. There remains full recognition of the basic
requirement that recommendations for change in public
social policies must be supported by appropriate data,
by such techniques as cost-benefit analysis and by
extrapolation of current and past data into the future.
Nevertheless, as the 1950's came to a close and the next
decade emerged the basic dissatisfactions in many large
urban communities appeared to return to concerns of long
standing: gaps in the provision of services where human
need was obvious, duplication of facilities and apparent
waste of financial resources, confusion concerning the
representation and representativeness of a variety of
voluntary and public agencies (sometimes described as
the problem of public-private relationships), and concerns
about the newly recognized needs of a rapidly urbanized
society.

The Period of Social Planning for Social Action

Throughout Canada and the United States, the
decade which began in the middle 1950's was one of the
intense dissatisfaction with the provision and delivery
of social services whether under public or voluntary
auspices. Studies in the United States and Canada revealed
two fundamental facts of tremendous importance. On the
one hand, it was found that a very small percentage of
families in major urban centres absorbed a very high
proportion of all social services available.[22] There,
thus emerged the concept of the "multi-problem family" which,

moreover, continued its dependency on the social services
through succeeding generations. On the other side of the
coin, in the midst of a decade or more of economic
prosperity and apparent affluence, it became widely
recognized that poverty had persisted within large
numbers of families and from a geographical point of
view was evident over wide regions.

In the emerging metropolitan areas of Canada and
the United States social planning organizations (by this
time customarily designated Social Planning Councils) began
to undertake systematic investigations generally entitled
"needs and resources and studies." [23] These studies cannot
easily be termed "research" but there were many elements
of social research implicit within their organization and
often they involved the preparation of research papers by
scholars and consultants either for background or in
support of specific recommendations.

The study of needs and resources was the first
approach in the transformation of social planning councils
into more appropriate bodies capable of planning for social
change. Large numbers of lay people were involved,
as well as many professionals in the public and voluntary
agencies. The process occupied two or three years of
preparation, consideration and the evolution of consensual
approaches to recommendations. In the course of these
processes many voluntary agencies underwent traumatic
periods of self-evaluation fostered by the methodological
approach of "a community self-study." In consequence,
within a few years of the publication of a needs and resources
study some voluntary agencies were forced by the logic
of their findings into major changes in policy and function
or amalgamation with other services and, on occasion,
went out of existence. At the same time, the pressure
upon the public social and health services mounted. Armed
with impressive publications and background studies lay
and professional leaders pressed public authorities at
both the provincial and local levels for changes in public
social policies, for the initiation of new services, for
the modification of existing services and, above all,
for new approaches to the administration and delivery of
social and health services to individuals and families.

In the mid-1970's Ontario finds itself approaching
the close of a period of change fostered and reinforced by
a series of voluntary needs and resources studies. The Task

Force on Community and Social Services, initiated by the
Minister in July 1972, was in a real sense a needs and
resources study in the public sector. The basic terms of
reference of the Task Force make it clear that the Ministry
was concerned about its objectives, its programmes, its
utilization of human resources, its administrative structure,
and its relationships with other departments of government
and with organizations in the voluntary sector. In short,
the Task Force was to examine the needs of the major public
departments concerned with social welfare in Ontario and
the resources to meet those needs. While this comparison
is by no means remarkable, it is interesting to note that
the large urban centres in Ontario had already embarked upon
and completed fundamental soul-searching excercises within
their own jurisdictions before the public agency of highest
repute determined to make a similar investigation within
its own sphere.

The last report of the Task Force Devotes a mere five
pages to the subject of "Social Planning." [24] The Report states
categorically that the kind of social planning necessary
at the local and area levels cannot be accomplished by
existing social planning councils, even if they are given
substantially increased financial support. [25] The Report
goes further and states:

> The kind of social planning that is currently
> possible within the private sector is limited
> to cooperative effort that will not threaten
> the existence of the voluntary agencies ...
> Voluntary Social Planning Councils have neither
> the mandate nor the power to attack the causes
> of problems that we find in our complex
> society. [26]

The Task Force, conversely, holds that planning
at both the area and district levels can become an important
aspect of the central policy coordinating structure of the
Government of the Province. It is not suggested that the
Ministry of Community and Social Services can undertake
the task of social planning in its broad definition as the
sole governmental agent with this responsibility; nor
does it rule out but, rather, emphasizes the importance
of partnership between the Ministry, local governments and
private agencies.

In the late 1960's and early 1970's, however, it was these very social planning councils throughout Ontario that, together with the Welfare Council of Ontario, pressed governments at both levels in the Province to undertake fundamental changes in a variety of social welfare and income maintenance programmes. On many occasions they urged the Ministry to undertake the kind of examination that is now available as the result of almost two years of work by the Task Force on Community and Social Services. The social planning councils did in fact play two roles during the past decade. First, they became more sophisticated in their approach to planning for social change by undertaking more comprehensive and more defensible research studies, often funded by public funds but on occasion through the contributions of charitable foundations. Secondly, a self-examination of their own roles led the councils into the very questions which the Task Force had raised about the existence of social planning councils and their responsibilities in Ontario society.

It would be quite wrong to conclude, as some observers appear to have done, that the social planning councils were satisfied with their definition of social planning; that they were confident in the exercise of their responsibilities; and that they were at ease in their relationships with government organizations, particularly those of the Ministries of the Ontario Government. The facts indicate that the reverse was true in almost every situation in which social planning councils undertook investigations and made recommendations to public authorities with respect to major community concerns. The councils were unsure of themselves, and were worried about their responsibilities and relationships both within the voluntary network of social and health services and with respect to the public authorities.

The Major Issues in Historical Perspective

From the beginning of voluntary and public agencies' assumption of responsibility to provide services to people in need in this province there have been serious questions and significant dilemmas seeking resolution. The early efforts at coordination of voluntary initiatives to meet the problems of the poor, the neglected, the aged, and the defective raised very sharply the closely-connected question of planning and funding. The major concern with respect to the concept of planning is fundamental, and in the view of the Task Rorce, remains the question of definition. [27] What, in fact, is or was an acceptable definition of "social planning" at any one time in the society of the past century? In its simplest form, to plan means to examine needs and resources, to look into the future from both aspects of organization, and to relate available resources to the current

and estimated future requirements. This, however, is the generic exposition of planning and does not deal with the more difficult question of the application of the adjectival concept of "social" when applied to the concept of planning.

Social planning has had innumerable definitions and within the literature there is a long history of attempts to define the concept. [28] In brief, the confusion has arisen because some expositions have assumed a relatively narrow view of planning, by application to the specific tasks of current and future programmes of existing agencies, usually the voluntary agencies, in the community. Moreover, a further narrow definition was based upon the notion that social planning was essentially the examination and future development of the programmes of social welfare organizations, usually the voluntary bodies but sometimes including public departments at both the local and provincial levels. In the mid-twentieth century these relatively narrow definitional exercises were considered to be quite inadequate, particularly as the expanding populations in urban areas began to insist on far greater assumption of responsibility and far more intervention in private market situations (such as in the field of health services and housing accommodation) by government than ever before.

The newer definitions of social planning during the past ten or fifteen years moved more often to the other end of the continuum by encompassing the whole of society and its problems within the domain of social planning. The most notable economists in the first half of this century in Western Europe and in North America spoke about social services, and on occasion, used the term "social planning" without distinguishing its use from what often has been described as "economic planning." These scholars clearly observed that the objectives of economic planning were social goals, specifically improvements in the general standard of living and reasonable minimum standards of living for all citizens in a Western industrial society. These concepts, however, did little to solve the dilemma of defining "social planning" to the satisfaction of most people, because there appeared to be literally no limit to the concept. It could be concluded that this term encompassed all forms of planning - political, economic, and urban - within the broad rubric of "social." Moreover, the term "social planning" was sometimes equated with a further term used particularly by sociologists, namely, "societal planning." Some of these concepts were based upon social theories which were unacceptable to many persons in western industrial societies and were based upon rejection of the approach of capitalism to economic development.

They tended, therefore, to be rejected in turn because,
from the point of view of the leaders and most citizens in
a democratic society, they necessitated infringements upon
freedom and political systems that appeared to be
totalitarian in nature and intent.

        Alfred Kahn has described social planning as "standing
plans." More specifically, he has indicated that in social
planning what may be sought as "outcome" is one or more of
the following:

        (1)   new policies (standing plans);

        (2)   programme and policy coordination;

        (3)   service integration;

        (4)   innovations in programme;

        (5)   choice of priorities in any of the above
              categories or for allocation of resources;

        (6) administrative decisions.[29]

He admits that what he has described is essentially an
intellectual undertaking:

                Some of the component parts call for action
                in the form of surveys, fact-gathering,
                struggling, bargaining, and development
                of consensus around preferences.   The
                central concern here nonetheless remains,
                how does one think about planning - that
                is, an intellectual endeavour.[30]

        This question of definition is one of the fundamental
issues which is historical perspective appears to have been
raised from the very beginning of so-called "social planning
councils" in Ontario and which has persisted to the present
day. The problem of non-agreement on the boundaries of
social planning and the meaning of the terminology constitutes
a serious dilemma for both government and the voluntary
organizations. It is not improper to suggest that government
organizations and voluntary social planning bodies must come
to some understanding of the concept. Only then will the
definition of appropriate responsibilities for both the
public and private sectors become clear.

Lack of agreement and failure of understanding of
basic definitions and terminological boundaries were the
foundation of many other dilemmas which, while narrower
in scope, were critically important within specific communities.
There was always the question, for example, of the location
of the planning function within the local network of voluntary
and public agencies. If the social planning function was
to be properly exercised, in one important view, it ought to
be part and parcel of the federated fund-raising organization
within the community. It was unthinkable that the public
should be asked to donate large sums of money for allocation
to voluntary organizations without the exercise of planning;
without the setting of priorities for distribution of
charitable funds; without a process of looking at current and
future needs; and estimating or judging the changes that should
be undertaken and the directions of future social requirements.

It was logical in the view of many persons, particularly
those whose efforts were devoted substantially to the raising
of privately-donated funds, that the planning function should
be an integral part of fund-raising organization. Thus,
in Hamilton there was a Social Planning Division for a great
many years until it fell into disuse in the mid-1950's as a
consequence of a series of dissatisfactions on both the
fund-raising and the social planning side of the voluntary-
interest continuum. In Toronto, with the initiation of the
United Welfare Chest in 1944 and the Community Chest in
1946, the strength of the logic induced many community
leaders to bring the Welfare Council of Toronto within the
structure of the federated fund-raising organization. The
Welfare Council became the social planning arm of the Chest
and remained in that position for nearly two decades.
Similarly, in other communities the council of social agencies
or the social planning council was either directly within the
umbrella of the funding body, or at the very least, was
called upon to provide guidance in the allocation of funds,
in the admission of new agencies to the funding operation,
in the demission of former members to whom funds might no
longer be granted, and in the entire process of priority
setting.

This notion of independence versus integration within
the fund-raising organization has been an issue for at least
the past fifty years. It has by no means been a pleasant
issue or one lacking in contentious debate and ill-feeling.
The basic problem is simply stated: whenever the social
planning organization, within the rubric of the funding
organization, undertook a systematic study of social concerns

or emerging social issues and published its results there
was bound to be concern expressed by those whose major
voluntary effort was in fund-raising that the activities
of the social planning body would or already had "hurt"
the capacity to raise charitable funds. There were few
questions, if any, which social planning bodies could raise in
the two decades 1945-65 that did not arouse bitter feelings
and some animosity between those persons who chose to sit on
the board of directors or committees of the social planning
organization as against those who preferred similar positions
in the fund-raising organization. Nor was it possible
to solve these difficulties through overlapping representation.
It was entirely clear that the addition of a few representatives
from the fund-raising body to the board or committees of the
social planning organization would simply bring the criticisms
more directly "into the open" and perhaps disrupt the activities
of the latter body at an earlier stage. At the same time,
the addition of a few representatives from the social planning
organization on the board or committees of the funding
organization did not solve the problem of understanding
the role and responsibilities which the social planning body
understood as a consequence of a more or less evident community
mandate. In fact, the tensions became more rather than
less stringent with the exchange or with the development of
interlocking directorates.

          In Toronto, for example, the re-publication
of Cost of Living as the war drew to a close and its continued
up-dating and monthly publication after the war (with releases
to newspapers concerning the current costs of a moderate
but adequate standard of living for a family of two adults
and three children) led to important clashes between members
of the Board of Directors of the Community Chest of Greater
Toronto and the Board of Directors of the Welfare Council
of Toronto; the latter organization was administratively
within the organization of the former. The members of the
Council Board and staff were frequently told that their
activities were hurting or inhibiting the federated fund-
raising operation (the tensions intensified to the point
that both the Executive Director and Director of Research
of the Welfare Council found other, more congenial
employment within three years following the war).

          Similarly, in Hamilton when the reorganized Social
Planning Division in the early 1960's began its
investigations of the "social costs of urban renewal," the
funding body was upset by the process and there were conflicts

between the members of the two Boards.[31]   The uneasiness on
both sides led to a determination by the Council to become
an independent agency funded, as any other voluntary
organization, by the United Appeal. By 1966 the Social
Planning and Research Council was the new name of an
organization dissociated from the fund-raising body.

        It was not a matter of one large study but rather,
a whole series of normal, often rountine, activities within
the social planning organization that fostered ongoing tensions
within the joint operation. Examples can be discerned within
other Ontario communities but the general proposition remains
true: the identification of major social problems backed
up by systematically collected, organized and analyzed
data, together with their dissemination through the news
media led, if not to outright divorce, to significant tensions
and confusions within the community. This applied particularly
among public-spirited volunteers who devoted much hard work
to raising money "for charitable causes" and to endless hours
of committee meetings to help plan the allocation and
utilization of scarce resources.

        The other side of the coin is the whole question of
funding organizations which undertake the social planning
function within communities wherein many social and health
services are available. All these councils, without exception,
faced the problem of financing their operations, however
designed. As has been described in most communities the
councils were funded by virtue of their role as the coordinating
or planning arm of the voluntary fund-raising organization.
In other communities they became an additional organization
to be funded through private charitable donations. From
the point of view of the Ontario-wide body, known for the
past two decades as the Ontario Welfare Council, the
problem was even more difficult by virtue of its area-wide
implications and by virtue of the amounts of money required.
The larger councils like the Social Planning Council of
Metropolitan Toronto (so named after the publication of
the Needs and Resources Study in 1963) and the Ontario
Welfare Council could not fail to approach public authorities
for funding. As might be expected, these approaches were
difficult and posed serious dilemmas for both the applicants
and the public authorities.

On the one hand, the basic funding requirement of social planning councils is a guaranteed amount of money, perhaps increasing each year in line with the consumer price index but not tied to a specific project or projects. On the other hand, governments are less inclined to grant block funds to voluntary organizations than they are to fund earmarked specific projects; alternatively, they prefer to fund particular invest-igations or research programmes to provide new information and suggestions of new approaches for the improvement of programmes and the delivery of social and health services.

This last notion poses a further dilemma: applicants for public funding with specific research questions or investigations in mind may often find themselves unable to finance the programme they consider of the highest priority, and they must turn instead to other research projects which appear to the donor (the public authority in this case) to offer greater potential for improvement in public social policies and programmes. There is therefore a danager that, unwittingly and unwilling, social planning councils become an arm of government in carrying out investigations which, from time to time, might be embarrassing if governmental departments themselves were to undertake such research. The recent funding of the investigations of the impact of the policies of the Ontario Housing Corporation upon various communities (financed by the Advisory Task Force on Housing Policy) is a case in point. The Welfare Council of Ontario had conceived of this programme nearly two years before it was funded, but it was clear that governments were uncertain about the value of the investment until the Minister responsible for housing appointed a Task Force in 1972. The Task Force saw potential value in the standing proposal of the Ontario Welfare Council.

During the first three or four decades of apparent social planning in social welfare organization and development there were many other issues of less conceptual import but of equal community signifance. It seems always to have been true that certain long-resident families, or influential families by virtue of wealth and status in particular communities, were the initiators, sponsors or chief supporters of specific social welfare services. Health services do not seem to have encountered this situation so clearly because of

In commenting upon the capacity of planning
organizations to develop the potential for overcoming "the
problems of inaccessibility, fragmentation, and dis-
continuity," it was asserted that such public agencies
can acquire more resources and attain higher status than
the voluntary agencies.[38]   These analysts argue that public
officials with planning responsibilities in the field of
social policy have other significant advantages:

> In addition, the planner in a public
> department is in a unique position
> to gain access to the mayor and members
> of City Council and other senior
> department heads in health and urban
> planning. This location in turn means
> that the planner can attempt to
> influence people who exercise a great
> deal of power at the municipal level.
>
> Both the Vancouver and Halifax departments
> were able to acquire, in a very short space
> of time, resources superior to those of
> voluntary councils. The Halifax department
> developed a planning and research arm
> which focused its attention on new ways of
> providing service.[39]

At the provincial level, the over-all problem in
Ontario is far more complicated. First of all, we are
dealing with a "nation-state" operating within a diverse
economy and populated by more than eight million persons.
The Government of Ontario is now composed of twenty-four
Ministries and it would be difficult indeed to demonstrate
that the policies, plans and programmes of many of
these departments would be excluded from the rubrics
"social policy" and "social planning." It is certainly
clear that within the jurisdiction of the Policy Ministry
for Social Development, the plans developed and the programmes
implemented within the several sudsidiary Ministries of
Community and Social Services, Education, Health, and
Universities and Colleges, directly or indirectly affect
the vast majority of individuals and families within the
Province, and in addition have an indirect effect upon
the situation in other provinces throughout the nation.
In addition, the policies and programmes of such Ministries
as Correctional Services, Housing, the Environment, and
Labour, are as significantly related to the standard of

Errata

Sourcebook to Pathways to Social Planning

Pages 77 through 83 are incorrectly numbered.
Please make the following changes before reading
document:

1. Change page 77 to 83

              78 to 77 (First word of top line
                          should have small "t")
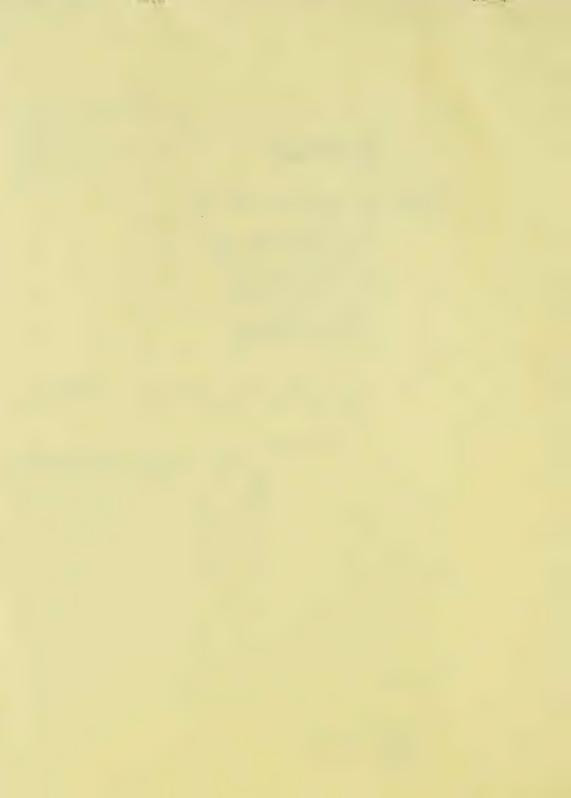
              79 to 78

              80 to 79

              81 to 80

              82 to 81

              83 to 82

The long-standing existence of departments of public
health in local municipalities. In the social welfare
field, however, one finds the names of particular families
associated historically with the Children's Aid society
of Toronto and other organizations and causes. There were
other interests based on religious affiliations, such
as the association of the United Church with St. Christopher
House in west central Toronto; the concern of the Roman Catholic
community in its own visiting nursing service; and there is
also the interest of the Jewish community in Windsor, Hamilton,
Toronto, Ottawa, and London in a variety of services designed to
welcome and integrate newcomers as well as to take care
of the problems of established residents. These interests,
whether based upon family or religious auspices, were
often considered to be "inviolate" whenever the social
planning organizations in the community undertook
systematic investigations of coordination of services,
the matter of joint operation if appropriate, and the
problem of duplication of services.

There were many notable occasions in the history
of social planning in Ontario when specific persons,
families, or other interests resisted strongly the
recommendations that certain services cease operation
because of their inefficiency or their duplication of
already existing services; such opposition most often
prevailed over the recommendations. It is not a question
of "right or wrong" but the delineation of a further
issue which tended to weaken the social planning
councils. They could not necessarily count upon the
implementation of their recommendations, however well
documented and however well intentioned. This weakness
did not escape the notice of fund-raising organizations
concerned about their incapacity to raise all the
requirements of the participating agencies, nor has it
escaped the attention of the recent Task Force on
Community and Social Services.

The Issues of the Past Become the Present

The overriding issue that has persisted for half-
a-century or more may be expressed as the question of
balancing the advantages of a totally public planning
process versus planning under private auspices through
social planning councils which attempt to integrate voluntary
and public social welfare and health services. In the view of
many participants in the social planning process under the
auspices of Ontario Councils, the proper role for the public
authority is to fund the planning process through the voluntary
organizations, and to finance their research programmes which

are intended to shed light on the present and future
service requirements in this province. The proponents of
this view argue that it is better for government and
tremendously significant in government's espousal of the
concept of public participation to entrust a group of
citizen volunteers, and the research consultants and
technicians they may hire, with the resources to
investigate the present and future course of public social
policies. They argue that this will be better done under
voluntary auspices; that government is relieved of the
necessity of examining its own processes; and that public
authorities may feel freer to accept or reject
recommendations emanating from voluntary social planning
organizations than to deny the validity of internal task
forces, particularly when composed of elected members of
the Legislature and senior civil servants.

On the other hand, the Task Force on Community and
Social Services clearly rejected this view and argued that
social policy by definition is, first of all, too limited
and conceived by social planning councils for a great many
decades. Of more importance, however, is the argument
that social planning councils in the voluntary sector cannot
conceive of the range of opportunities that government
may have as options for future legislative and administrative
action. The funds available for public social planning
have already been collected through the tax system and it
is not necessary to attempt to adjudicate the validity
and probable consequences of privately sponsored research
formulations. The Task Force argued that social planning
councils in the voluntary sector have never represented
adequately the public agencies which spend the largest
proportion by far of the resources available for the delivery
of social and health services. Thus, they have a
responsibility to plan in the long term for the
benefit of all citizens in the Province, rather than to
examine only local or area-wide (regional) social
problems and social requirements.

This issue is by no means settled, because it is
tangential to and impinges upon a second persistent issue
of long duration. This additional fundamental issue
is the question of the social planning organization as

an agent of social change. Those who have been active
in voluntary social planning organizations insist that public
authorities as departments or sub-departments of governmental
ministries cannot easily or even logically act as agents
of social change because they are inevitably involved in
the political process. Decisions are not necessarily taken
with respect to objectives or research-based examinations
of human need, but may be influenced significantly by such
political factors as geographical distribution, and demographic
concentrations of ethnic groups, religious groups, and the
like.

Voluntary planning bodies insist that they are the
traditional and logical experimental agents of social change
by virtue of their capacity to mount demonstration projects,
experimental ventures in specific communities or neighbourhoods,
without particular reference to some of the factors which
constitute the political determinants at any one time. On
the other hand, those who espouse the view that the over-all
planning process must be largely in the hands of public
authorities are sceptical of the role of social planning
councils as agents of social change. They find little
evidence that the alleged traditional role of innovation,
experimentation, demonstration, and transfer of proven
new approaches to service delivery to public auspices, are,
in fact, supportable in the available records. They argue
as well that the voluntary social planning organizations
are not free of some of the factors which they allege to
be influential in the public planning process. In
particular, they are not free of demographic factors within
the local or regional areas, the influence of newcomers
and concentrations of ethnic groups, nor are they
free of the influence of diverse religious groups which seek
to meet special communal needs.

Nevertheless, there are notable examples in Ontario
of the voluntary exercise of what Ralph Kramer calls "four
conventionally ascribed organizational roles: vanguard,
improver, supplementor, and guardian."[32] In Ottawa,
the Council, by the mid-1950's, was able to identify social
needs not met either by voluntary or public
services; was able to develop new services for the
community such as a Visiting Homemakers' Association;

was able to work with the parents of retarded children
in the development of services for that neglected
group of young people; and could argue that the Council
had become a significant component in public education
leading to social action.[33] Action was accomplished
with respect to the problems of retarded children, in
the field of medical social work in hospitals, with
respect to public attention to housing conditions, and
with respect to the needs of the elderly. Moreover,
in the realm of surveys and research the Ottawa Council
was able to develop comprehensive studies of the over-all
situation respecting chronic hospitals and was thus able
to enhance public awareness of the need for rehabilitation
services, just as it had previously brought to the attention
of the community the need for social work services in
medical settings in acute treatment hospitals.

The issue of representativeness, or more properly
the lack of representativeness, is a further dimension
of long standing tension between voluntary interests
and public agencies in the broad field of social planning.
Membership on the boards of directors and major study
committees of social planning councils in Ontario have
often been drawn from persons who were particularly
interested in specific services by virtue of family
or traditional interests and connections. It has been
charged, therefore, that the planning agencies have been
dominated by an elite of self-appointed community
leaders - whether or not family background and historical
interests were involved.

It might be more correct to state that the charge
essentially comprehends a collection of elites:
professional, intellectual, academic, and service-
oriented. The social planning councils clearly required
the talents of the best educated and most knowledgeable
volunteers in the community if they were to undertake
the surveys and research projects which they
conceptualized, and if they were to prepare the briefs
and exert the pressures upon government which they
felt were the most appropriate approaches to the implementation
of their recommendations for social action and change in
public social policies. By the 1960's, however, as
public attention focused upon the perpetuation of poverty
in an affluent society, it was argued more and more
in the media and in discussions between the representatives
of voluntary agencies and public bodies and that planning
councils did not represent the breadth of interests in
the community.

In particular it was argued that they failed to represent adequately poor people, disadvantaged minority groups including women, ethnic groups who had become more important in Ontario urban communities since the 1950's, the elderly, and the like.

The charge may have been true, but could equally have been levied against government representatives and certainly against senior governmental officials who had been appointed to major planning responsibilities in public organizations. In addition however, as Kramer has pointed out, the centrality of the planning council under voluntary auspices as the chief instrument for social planning through coordination and allocation of priorities, has recently been challenged as a result of two significant forces.[34] On the one hand, the Social Planning Council has been by-passed by governmental agencies with respect to a substantial number of public responses in the war against poverty; and, on the other hand, there has been occurred during the last decade the development in many communities of parallel, ad hoc planning superstructures.

An issue of special importance in Ontario is the matter of the geographical unit covered by the social planning agency. Historically the early councils were concerned with a specific municipality. As urbanization proceeded after the Second World War, a substantial increase in population beyond the borders of local municipalities made it essential that the social planning councils extend their activity into the suburban areas. The argument that these new concentrations of population were quite, or relatively, free of the social problems which were of great concern in the downtown urban core did not stand up to careful scrutiny, and by the early 1960's it was inevitable that the councils would embrace larger geographical entities and indeed entire metropolises. Thus, the Social Planning Council of Toronto became the Social Planning Council of Metropolitan Toronto, and the Council of Social Agencies of Ottawa was renamed the Social Planning Council of Ottawa and District.

Since 1966, the Government of Ontario has embarked upon a programme of study eventuating in a deliberate process of regionalization. By the mid-1970's there are more than a dozen regional governments in the province, some of long standing such as Metro Toronto[35]

and the Regional Municipality of Ottawa-Carleton. Some are in
their third or fourth year of activity but may be
said to be still in the process of organization, such as
the Regional Municipality of York and the Regional
Municipality of Waterloo; some are in their first year
of operation, such as the Regional Municipalities of
Peel, Halton, Durham, and so on. In all these regional
governments the fundamental question of responsibility
for social planning has not been resolved. In some
jurisdictions there is a well established voluntary
social planning council: in others there is not, or
there is a council which has not previously extended its
planning jurisdiction beyond the boundaries of more
than one or two local governments. In an examination of
its future role, the Provincial Government must decide
whether it will assign the responsibility in social planning
to a department of these regional governments or
whether it will call upon the voluntary planning agencies
to work closely with such governments and perhaps to
receive financial support from them.

Social Planning under Public Auspices

It is a fact that well into the 1950's there
were few examples of public social planning which could
be identified at either the local or provincial levels
throughout our country. It could be argued that
social planning was more evident at the federal level
in so far as intergovernmental arrangements had developed
in the broad fields of economic security and income
maintenance. As gaps in those systems began to be
filled during the 1950's and as the Federal Government
entered more directly the field of public assistance with
the passage of the Unemployment Assistance Act 1958,
it was evident that at least in this field of significant
public expenditures, there were efforts to examine in-
adequacies and to plan to meet future needs on the
basis of demographic projections.

By the end of the 1950's, however, there was
the first appointment of a social planner as a department
head in the governmental structure of the City of Halifax.
Public social planning in Halifax has been studied. By
the mid-1960's there was also a significant development
in social planning under public auspices in the City
of Vancouver.[36] These experiences were thoroughly
analyzed by Wharf and Carter in their concluding volume
for C.C.S.D.[37]

living and quality of life of the people of Ontario as
the departments within the over-all Minstry of Social
Development. In fact, one could argue that the entire
provincial governmental structure is now directed towards
"social planning" and "social policy."

        In recent years the artificial distinction between
physical and/or urban planning and social planning has
become substantially blurred. Moreover, some academics and
professional practitioners have made strong statements
opposing the continuance of separate practitioner roles,
as well as denouncing the animosity which has developed
between the so-called physical planners and the so-
called social planners.[40] If one returns to an examination
of the governmental organizations within this province,
even the Ministry of Treasury, Economics, and Intergovernmental
Affairs cannot be said to be a purely economic or
physically oriented Department, but one in which the
decisions taken - for example with respect to recent
changes in interest rates on housing mortgages, and
policies with respect to the organization of local
government - are within the realm of social planning.

        During the past three or four years many local
governments in Ontario have seen fit to oppose appeals
against their planning decisions at the level of
the Ontario Municipal Board. Their arguments in defence
of local planning decisions have most often been made
with reference to the social consequences of their
plans and programmes and their desire to improve the
quality of life for the people of Ontario. The ultimate
result of this argument might well be an assertion that
social planning is inevitably a public activity and
ought to be exercised by public agencies charged
with specific social planning responsibilities.
However, in the absence of a strong governmental
assertion that it intends, through one bureau or by
joint action of several Ministries, to undertake
this fundamental responsibility, there may be no case
for transferring the responsibility from the existing
voluntary social planning bodies in Ontario.

Nevertheless, there are already important examples of
social planning activity under public auspices. The Advisory
Task Force on Housing Policy and the Task Force on Community
and Social Services published many reports which can only be
described as "pre-social policy documentation" and certainly
already have a place in the literature of social planning.
In the same sense the several reports and background papers
of the Committee on Government Productivity fall with
this rubric. The Ontario Economic Council added to the
examination of public social policy with the issuance
of a set of five studies early in 1974.[41] An excellent
example of the manner in which one Ministry can prepare and
disseminate its point of view on a matter of social policy
rests in the Brief prepared for the Advisory Task Force on
Housing Policy for the Ministry of Community and Social
Services.[42]

Thus, the overriding issue at this stage in the
analysis is the matter of the division of responsibility.
Ralph Kramer has written that:

> In social welfare circles, there are now
> two opposing schools of thought regarding the
> desirability and feasibility of determining
> a division between governmental and voluntary
> services, and they are correlated with a belief
> in the significance of the differences between
> the two agency systems. While the predominant
> opinion in the literature is that such a
> demarcation is neither possible nor necessary
> over 50 planning councils have developed general
> statements of principles for one or more fields of
> service. Primary impetus for a formal attempt
> to differentiate roles comes form budgeting
> and planning bodies seeking to maximize scarce
> philanthropic funds, principally by
> encouraging the transfer of appropriate
> services from voluntary to governmental
> auspices.[43]

Concluding Comments

The clear and obvious difficulty with the position
that government should assume totally the responsibility for
"social planning for social policy" appears to rest at this
time in the dilemma posed by the Government of Ontario's

position with respect to citizen participation in governmental decision-making. [44] Social planning in Ontario under voluntary auspices, despite its problems and weaknesses, does represent an important form of citizen participation in governmental planning. To erase it, particularly on the argument that such planning is a public responsibility and that in any event the activity can be undertaken more adequately by govermental organizations with substantial resources, denies participation to certain groups in the community who have already demonstrated an interest in joining together as citizens, to ascertain the facts in particular social situations, to analyze these data systematically, and to present their findings and recommendations both to government and to the general public.

The classic answer to this dilemma has always been what is loosely called "purchase of service" by government bodies from voluntary agencies. In the situation at hand this would mean the funding of voluntary social planning organizations either for much or all of their on-going operations, or specifically, for certain research activities which governmental organizations might well feel could more appropriately be undertaken outside the parameters of public agencies and their staffs. All voluntary organizations, however, have intrinsic defects based upon limitations of resources, lack of widespread representativeness among their membership, and a series of dilemmas which Kramer has described as "goal deflection, the maintenance of identity and autonomy, and the avoidance of dependency." [45]

On the matter of the relative advantages and disadvantages of governmental purchase or direct provision of service - in this case, social planning for social policy development - Kramer has written that "assessment ... indicates that while the former governmental purchase may be expedient and widely favoured, it is in the best interests of both agencies that the practice be used sparingly. [46] It would appear, therefore, that the only way in which the present dilemmas, which have deep roots in the historical development of voluntary agencies, particularly in the field of social welfare in this province, will be settled is through the further exploration of public responsibility for "social planning" in Ontario.

It has not been mentioned previously in this paper that the very term "social policy" has not been satisfactorily defined perhaps because attention has been focused on the other concept, namely, "social planning." It behooves one or more agencies of government to prepare and disseminate a clear identification of the issues involved, the possible

solution to these dilemmas, the pros and cons of various solutions, and to inspire a wider public understanding through widespread debate on these questions. This, it is clearly, understood, is the objective of the "Green Paper" tentatively entitled Planning for Social Planning.

FOOTNOTES (Rose)

1. Richard B. Splane, Social Welfare in Ontario 1791-1893:
   A Study of Public Welfare Administration (Toronto:
   University of Toronto Press, 1965), p.20.

2. Ibid., p. 6

3. D. C. Masters, The Rise of Toronto 1850-1890 (Toronto:
   University of Toronto Press, 1947), p. 127.

4. Splane, pp. 284-5.

5. See Ian Bain, "The role of J.J.Kelso in the launching
   of the Child Welfare Movement in Ontario". Unpublished
   MSW thesis, University of Toronto School of
   Social Work, 1955.

6. Splane, p. 287.

7. Splane, p. 287.

8. Frieda Held, Mary Jennison, Lillian Henderson, 1908-1959 A
   Brief History of the Ontario Welfare Council (Toronto,
   OWC, 1959) p. 5.

9. Op. cit., pp. 2-3

10. Op. cit., p. 5. The six communities mentioned previously
    were Ottawa, London, Kitchener, Peterborough,
    Hamilton and St. Thomas. Toronto, by virtue of
    special arrangements within that city, was
    represented by the Federation for Community Service,
    which was the voluntary fund-raising organization
    for the non-Roman Catholic and non-Jewish Communities.

11. Op. cit., p. 5.

12. Op. cit., pp. 5-6

13. The first two directors of the Social Service Council
    of Ontario were clergymen, covering the period
    1918-1948, and the directors of many of the
    participating organizations (for example, the
    Neighbourhood Workers Association of Toronto) were
    also clergymen.

14. Frieda Held et al., p. 5.

15. Frieda Held et al., pp. 6-7

16. H. M. Cassidy, Unemployment and Relief in Ontario
    1929-1932: A Survey and Report (Toronto: Dent,
    1932), p. 7.

17. Frieda Held, et al, p. 12.

18. Ibid.

19. Ibid.

20. The Welfare Council, The Cost of Living: A Study of
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Social Planning Functions and Social Planning Organizations

Brian Wharf

Social Planning Functions and
Social Planning Organizations

The objective of social planning is to anticipate and resolve social problems. The outcomes of most social planning activities are programmes of income maintenance, housing, family and child welfare, and mental health. As the following examples illustrate, one not unusual outcome is that conflicting and unconnected social programmes exacerbate rather than resolve the situation facing many consumers.

A woman receiving family benefits is receiving her monthly allowance from the Provincial Government, as well as a $10 per month rent supplement from the local welfare department. An announcement is made by the Province indicating that approximately $20 per month will be added to her payments. At the same time, the local welfare department cancels her $10 per month rent supplement because she is now receiving too much provincial money to be eligible. The woman's landlord then raises her rent by $18 on the assumption that she is in a position to pay the additional costs because of the provincial increase. As the result, the woman sees none of the extra $20 she has been allocated by the Province, and in fact has eight dollars less per month to meet her basic needs than she had before the "raise" was announced.

There is a great deal of confusion on the part of seniors with regard to Old Age Security, the Guaranteed Income Supplement and the provincial Guaranteed Annual Income Supplement Programme. The Guaranteed Annual Income Supplement programme was obviously designed to fill the gap for those seniors (and disabled) who were receiving some part of the Guaranteed Income Supplement,

so that their annual income
would be brought up to $2700.

If a senior is not eligible for
some or all of the Guaranteed
Income Supplement, then he is
not eligible for the drug
benefit, whatever the cost of
his prescriptions. He may be
eligible for "Special Assistance"
through the Regional Social Services,
and a drug card may be obtained if
financial need is determined.
However, the Provincial Government
determines eligibility for the drug
benefit at $2700, whereas the
regional government does so on a
different basis.

There is a further inconsistency
in that the Provincial Government
has so far not committed the
Guaranteed Annual Income
Supplement programme to be
tied to the cost of living index;
therefore, whereas the Old Age
Security and Guaranteed Income
Supplement will rise as the
cost of living does, Guaranteed
Annual Income Supplement will not.

A gentleman (aged 70) was supporting his
mother in a nursing home and found
himself caught in the pinch of an
increased monthly rate. This amounted
to $30 per month. His income was just
over the limit and he was still working
for fear that he could not pay all of
his expenses, including care for
his mother. Like many on low incomes,
he was caught between having too much
to be eligible for certain programmes
and yet not enough to live securely.

The Regional Planning Department
was gathering information on
recreational facilities in the
region. They were many months

into their study until they were
made aware that there were already
two studies being carried out; one
by the Federal Government (Recreation
Canada) and the other by the
Provincial Government (TORPS study)
and that a wealth of material was
available at the Hamilton Recreation
Department.*

"Somewhere in the system, someone isn't talking to
anyone!" This quote and the examples listed above
illustrate the theme of this paper - that poor social
planning results in poor social programmes. The purpose
of this paper is to identify the significant issues in
social planning in Ontario and to discuss the implications
of these issues. The beginning section of the paper
identifies in rather stark fashion some of the main
issues. The second section elaborates on these issues
by presenting some situations facing individuals and
families who are unable to secure the services they
need because programmes are planned in isolation from one
another. The consequences of independently planned
programmes are; that there are gaps between programmes
which should complement each other, but do not; that
some programmes are inadequate to meet needs,
and that confusion exists as to which of several
programmes are most appropriate for consumers looking for
assistance. The third section argues the need for the
development of middle range policies to provide direction
for programme planning efforts.

*These and the other case examples presented in this
 paper were collected from a variety of sources
 including the Central Information Services in
 Hamilton and Toronto; the Citizens Action Group
 in Hamilton; a report prepared for the Task Force
 on Community and Social Services entitled "The
 Situation of Family Benefit Recipients" by
 Doreen Boucher and from information gained by
 the writer in a number of conversations on this
 paper.

I. Identification of Issues

In a paper prepared for a seminar on social planning convened by the Ministry of Community and Social Services, the writer developed a framework which identified six related planning functions.[1] These planning functions are:

(1) Societal Guidance or Social Policy: To achieve the right ordering of social relationships, to achieve equality in the availability of opportunities and the distribution of rewards.

(2) Administrative Planning: To obtain the resources required for maintenance of the organization. To allocate resources between programmes or agencies.

(3) Programme Development: To identify new needs, to design programmes and services to meet these needs, and to implement the programmes.

(4) Locality Development: To identify needs and assist a local area to develop the capacity to meet these needs.

(5) Advocacy Planning: To represent the cause of a minority or disadvantaged group.

(6) Preventive Planning: To prevent problems from arising.

The main argument in the previous paper was that planning functions must be clearly identified and explicitly related to organizational structures. While a number of these functions can be undertaken by a single organization, other functions cannot. For example, planning for prevention and for advocacy must be undertaken by organizations specifically created for these functions and having no responsibility for other functions. The paper also discussed some problems such as the need for adequate resources for planning, the complex matter of conflicting and unclear mandates for planning, and the issues of knowledge and legitimacy.

This paper seeks to extend the work undertaken in the earlier essay by focussing directly on issues. In particular, it is submitted here that the most crucial issue in social planning is the lack of agreement regarding the objectives of planning. While a good deal of administrative and programme planning has been undertaken,

there is much uncertainty about the direction of
these planning efforts. A basic assumption of this
paper is that insufficient attention has been given to
societal guidance (hereafter referred to as social
policy), and the question is immediately raised as to
the possibility of achieving coherence in programme planning
in the absence of directions afforded by social policy.
And what should the objectives of social policy be?
To maintain and reinforce the status quo or to alter
existing arrangements in order to bring about more
equitable distribution of income; to raise the level
of concern about the environment and to deliberately
seek out more opportunities for citizens to become
involved in setting priorities around social issues?

Social policy is a notoriously vague and poorly
understood term, and it is, therefore, necessary to give
some attention to the interpretation used in this paper.

Social Policy

Social Policy can be interpreted on two levels.
At a high level of abstraction, social policy is viewed
as being concerned with "the right ordering of relation-
ships among men"[2] and with the process of resolving
disputes among various groups in society as to what
constitutes the right ordering of relationships. Social
policy involves a search for objections; it does not refer
to a settled, smooth course of decision making which
has agreed objectives as a starting point. At this
level, social policy is concerned with the quality of
life, and in its search for the right ordering of
relationships, social policy demands constructions which
provide integrative rather than divisive approaches.

Essentially, social policy represents an attempt
to abstract from the problems experienced by individuals
in order to develop guiding and directing frameworks
which will prevent and reduce these problems. Because
of its lofty aims and the complexities involved, social
policy entails difficult philosophical and abstract
consideration. It attempts to alter the accepted social
standards and to arrange opportunities and life styles
in universal and egalitarian terms.

It is readily apparent that the above description
of social policy is highly prescriptive and one which is
loaded with particular values and priorities. It seeks
to change existing values and priorities which, in
essence, are those of a competitive acquisitive society
dominated by concern for the unfettered workings
of the market economy and by those whose interests are
intimately connected with the economic system.

The position taken here is that current social
policies represent efforts to protect the casualties
of a capitalist society while perserving the essential
features of this system. At times, however, the published
statements of government indicate support for the reform-
oriented social policy described above. Thus the
Working Paper on Social Security in Canada states that
"it has long been accepted that the fruits of economic
growth should be fairly distributed: that the increases
in income which are the product of a growing economy
should not be appropriated by the rich or the powerful."[3]
The Working Paper does not, however, specify what it
considers to be "fair distribution." And by claiming
adherence to the principle of independence, whereby
"Canadians expect to meet their own needs through
their own efforts and they expect others to do the same,"
the Working Paper justifies the need for improvements in
income maintenance without calling attention to a
more fundamental reform, the need to alter income
distribution.

In summary, existing social policies constitute
a reinforcement of the status quo rather than pushing
for reform. And our casualty oriented policies contain
many contradictions and ambiguities. We have failed
to reach agreement on who the casualties are, (Do they
include high school dropouts, drug addicts and other
deviant groups as well as the physically handicapped and
the aged?), how generously they should be supported,
who should pay and what kind of administrative system
should be developed to determine eligibility and benefit
standards. We have not only failed to achieve reform-
oriented social policies which would radically alter
existing standards and opportunities; we have failed
to develop consistent conservative policies to guide
programme planning. The examples from practice contained
in Section II of this paper amply document this accusation.

Discussion of the central issue of objectives raises other important issues which have been identified in the District and Area reports prepared by staff of the Ministry of Community and Social Services for the Green Paper on Social Planning. These issues have also been discussed at some length in the literature on social planning, and are briefly discussed below.

The issue of mandate. This label essentially refers to the jurisdiction awarded to a particular organization. Should the responsibility for social planning be awarded to a single organization or should it be divided among a number? Should the responsibility for planning be joined with the responsibility for operating programmes? Should social planning and programme administration be undertaken by a central provincial department or divided among a number of government departments and voluntary agencies? At the present time planning is a many splintered thing.

The issue of linkages. Given the lack of a comprehensive mandate for the planning and provision of human services and given the assumption of this paper that this situation will continue to exist in Ontario, it is necessary to consider how connections can be made between a number of autonomous organizations. What provisions are needed to ensure that planning efforts undertaken by a children's aid society are compatible with those being carried out by a regional department of social services, the Ministry of Correctional Services, and a local health council?

This is an important issue because, as will be documented in Section II of this paper, one direct consequence of our failure to explicitly consider the need for connections in planning and providing services is that services often conflict or do not meet. The failure to make connections at the planning level results in direct service workers and consumers having to take on this responsibility.

The issue of resources and incentives. Planning is a time consuming process which involves defining the problem to be addressed, gathering information and opinions

about the problem, developing alternatives for action,
choosing and implementing the preferred alternative and
providing for feedback and evaluating the programme
which results from this process. Planning requires staff,
funds to support the planning process and funds to ensure
that programming will be implemented. And since planning
is frequently undertaken by organizations which lack
funds for programme implementation, there is a need
to establish funding sources for these agencies. The
provision of resources for planning to a variety of
citizen and voluntary organizations can be viewed as
an incentive to engage in planning either for new
programmes or in planning to bring existing services
together in a unified fashion.

The issue of legitimacy. A rich mine of information
exists in the planning literature around this issue.[4]
Put most simply, legitimacy means that since planning
often results in proposals for change, and since
change, whether in health, social services or in any
other sector of life is often resisted, it is vital
that those proposing changes are viewed as being trustworthy,
and more interested in the good of the community than in
favouring their own or their agency's interests.
Bringing about change frequently depends upon the planner
being able to develop a network of relationships among
key people in the community. Planning, as viewed here,
is a political process which requires, in addition to
mandate and resources, the development of a fund of
goodwill which permits changes to be considered and
not rejected out of hand.

A recent publication by the U.S. Department of
Health, Education and Welfare reviews a number of
attempts to concert social services at the local,
county and state levels.[5] According to this study,
resources and mandate were key factors, but:

> the study provides support for "the
> great man theory" that the personality
> of the project director is one of the
> most important factors in service
> integration. For many of the projects
> the director played the critical role
> in services integration. Leadership,

persuasiveness, commitment and
personal contact with political sources,
staff or service providers and the
community appeared to be those
attributes which had the greatest
positive impact.[6]

The issue of knowledge of and opinions on social problems.
The issues of mandate, linkages, legitimacy and resources
discussed above all relate to unresolved dilemmas
around the personal, monetary and organizational
capacities required to undertake social planning. The
final issue considered here relates back to the initial
issue of objectives. Is there sufficient knowledge
to allow social planning to achieve all or some of
its assigned objectives? Rittel and Webber argue that:

as distinguished from problems in the
natural sciences which are definable and
separable, the problems of government
planning - and especially those of
social or policy planning - are ill
defined and rely on elusive political
judgement for resolution. Not "solution."
Social problems are never solved. At
best they are only resolved - over and
over again.[7]

The position taken here is consistent with that
of Rittel and Webber. Social planning is concerned
with resolving social problems. However, Canada lacks
consensus on what constitutes a social problem, and,
like most nations, "we simply do not agree on what the
absolute values, and the true needs of men are."[8]
For example, the unequal distribution of income and
the resulting disparities in standards of living
constitutes to some Canadians a social problem which
should be addressed and resolved. To others this situation
is the necessary and inevitable consequence of adherence
to the principles of unfettered competition, self-
responsibility, and every man for himself.

It is, in fact, unrealistic and inappropriate to expect that social problems can, like problems in the natural sciences, be solved by increasing the stock of knowledge. The essential problem in resolving social problems is that of securing agreement on defining what is a social problem, how serious it is and what should be done about it. And this is no easy task. Redistributing income is in itself not difficult, but securing agreement from those whose incomes would be lessened, and from those on low incomes who aspire to be rich is a most difficult proposition.

This is not to argue that knowledge is not important. We do need to increase knowledge of the effects of life styles, of environmental conditions, and of existing programmes in housing, child welfare, corrections, and health. We need to know more about the costs and benefits of universal versus residual programmes and about the various arrangements for providing services. But these are not conditions which can be isolated for study in the laboratory. Essentially, improving knowledge in the social services involves conscious experimentation with services and a commitment to evaluate these programmes. Most significantly, it means ways of involving a wide variety of people in debates around "absolute values and true needs."

II. Some Consequences of the Planning Issues

It is inaccurate to state that the planning issues discussed above have been addressed by the Provincial Government and other groups in Ontario. An ambitious attempt to grapple with some, if not all issues was undertaken by the Committee on Government Productivity, which successfully argued the case for the grouping of government departments into policy fields.[9] Other attempts have been made by a number of task force enquiries by the Ministries of Health, Education, and Community and Social Services and by a variety of voluntary associations and organizations.[10] It is also accurate to say that these efforts have been primarily concerned with structural questions in order to harmonize existing ways of providing service. The central issue of the objectives of social planning and the development of a provincial policy base for social planning has been largely ignored.

One consequence of the resolution achieved to date has been the development of a number of myths about social planning. These consist of impressions and assumptions which shape thinking about social planning and are seldom subjected to the kind of critical thinking they deserve.

One such myth is that social planning is only undertaken by organizations specifically created for this task. This interpretation neglects much of the programme planning efforts of direct service organizations, and the locality development work and advocacy planning of interest and area based groups. It has the consequence of expecting too much from organizations like social planning councils which lack the mandate to implement programme proposals. Most importantly this myth directs attention away from the substance or subject matter of social planning to structural questions - who should plan rather than planning about what?

A second myth is that the essential concern of social planning is to improve the ways in which services are provided to consumers. Thus conceived, social planning becomes planning for the social services, and even more narrowly as planning to tidy up the messy interagency scene. This narrow interpretation again diverts attention from the substance of social planning by focussing on what kinds of organizations should have the responsibility for sorting out the confused mandates and domains of social service agencies. Yet in the debates around organizational structure, it is seldom recognized that the tidying up job requires a comprehensive mandate and explicit authority. The irony is that despite the interest in developing Human Resource Councils to undertake this task, there is also great reluctance to award to such organizations the necessary authority. Many of the district office reports bear out an observation made in the study of social planning in Halifax by the Canadian Council on Social Development:

> If we are serious about changing and improving the social services, someone has to be charged with this responsibility. It may well be that social workers and board members are enthusiastic about planning and coordination as long as these remain concepts. When it seems likely that the concepts are to be translated into practice the enthusiasm wanes.[11]

There is, in fact, no more cherished notion resting
in the souls of social workers, psychiatrists, nurses and
other members of our helping professions than that of
"coordination." Yet there is little understanding of the
diverse meanings of the term, and of the requirements
needed to coordinate services. Given the misunderstandings
that prevail around coordination, cooperation and
integration, it is necessary that these terms be defined.
Cooperation involves direct service workers, in sharing
information, resources and clients. Cooperation requires
administrative blessing, but in the last analysis
depends on the ability of line personnel to develop
harmonious working relationships. Integration involves
the sharing of agency resources or the formal agreement
to undertake joint projects. Coordination is the most
difficult to achieve. It calls for a common goal and
the meshing of both interrelated and disparate units
to achieve this goal. By definition coordination requires
control — someone has to be assigned the responsibility
of defining goals and concerting energies to achieve it.
Coordination can be achieved on an intra-agency basis
but even this requires administrative talents of a high
order.[12]

One reason for the continuing appeal of the
coordination strategy is that it appears to hold promise
of improving service delivery, without requiring additional
resources or significant changes. Secondly, it diverts
attention from an uncomfortable and embarrassing
reality; we simply do not know how to help and do not
have sufficient resources to help some individuals and
families. The unmotivated, unwilling, and unresponsive
client is frequently shunted from agency to agency
precisely because no one can engage him in a helping
relationship or provide the resources he needs. In turn,
this client manipulates rules and regulations in an effort
to extract some benefits from organizations which from
his point of view, appear equally intractable.

It is vital that we distinguish between the lack
of coherence at policy and planning levels which results
in the kind of situations described in this paper, and
the lack of knowledge and resources required to help
certain clients. Building voluntary organizations at the
local level to coordinate services will not resolve
failures at the policy level nor will these organizations
provide the resources or knowledge required to assist the

"dirty-work client." They will in fact repeat the experience
of the social planning councils in attempting to coordinate
services. Two quotations sum up this experience in
futility:

> Coordination frequently becomes a
> euphemism for sustaining a pattern
> of unmet needs. There is also
> persistent concern about duplication
> of services which provides a minor
> note of the ludicrous in a tragedy
> of non-existent and insufficiently
> supported services.[13]

The Senate Report on Poverty in Canada, notes that:

> it is apparent that the number of
> agencies are often a mere
> collection of names: a facade
> of plenty disguising a fact of
> paucity. Often moving from one
> agency to another merely
> identifies another place
> where necessary services are
> nominal or unavailable. Talk
> of overlap of services often masks
> the fact that decent levels of
> service are unavailable anywhere.[14]

Some Examples from Practice

The remainder of this section consists of examples
of situations which all too often face the consumers of
social programmes in Ontario. It should be noted that
the examples presented here describe situations which
affect a large number of people. They do not represent
isolated instances faced by consumers in exceptional
circumstances. They constitute in fact an accurate
reflection of the assertion argued in this paper that
social planning in Ontario constitutes "programmes in
search of a policy."[15] It is also pertinent to note
that this kind of information is not readily available;
agencies maintain records of the services they provide,
but they make no provision for collecting information
around services that could not be provided. Information

on unmet needs is typically reserved for time-limited and special studies.

The examples have been divided into categories. The first concern situations where the issues of objectives, mandate and linkages have not been adequately resolved, and the second category presents examples around the issues of legitimacy and knowledge.

Objectives, Mandate and Linkages

The lack of guiding policies results in programme planning occurring in an isolated fashion. Each programme constitutes an end in itself and relationships to other programmes require a special effort rather than routine consideration. And since programme planning within the provincial government takes place on a ministry basis, the boundaries of ministry mandates act as a severe impediment to any kind of comprehensive planning. One consequence of the kind of specialized, independent planning is that gaps exist between programmes which should complement each other and do not. For example:

> Metro Central Information Service (C.I.S)
> reports that eligible applicants for
> Workmen's Compensation who are
> destitute are not routinely referred
> to the local welfare department for
> assistance during the period required
> for processing their claim. Disabled
> persons ineligible for Workmen's
> Compensation benefits are often
> not aware that they are eligible
> for the disability provisions of
> the Canada Pension Plan.

> The report on the situation facing
> Family Benefits recipients in Sudbury
> prepared for the Task Force on the
> Ministry of Community and Social
> Services makes several telling
> observations around gaps in
> programmes. Several of the
> recipients interested in training
> through Canada Manpower could not
> avail themselves of this opportunity
> because:

- Daycare facilities are lacking (also reported by Metro C.I.S.).
- Health and dental coverage available through Family Benefits is not provided under Manpower training programmes.
- There was no provision for carrying over Family Benefits through the early stages of employment. Thus added expenses incurred from being employed have to be met before receiving wages and after being discharged from Family Benefits.
- There is no provision made under Family Benefits legislation for women whose children have left home, who are unable to work and who are not old enough to qualify for Old Age Security. The only recourse for this group who have been in receipt of Family Benefits for many years is to apply for General Assistance.

At another level, programme planning inhibited by Ministry boundaries and by lack of linkages with other ministries, has severe repercussions.

The recent moves by the Ministry of Correctional Services to reduce the population of training schools in Ontario is, in the writer's view, a progressive and necessary step. It has, however, resulted in many more adolescents who would traditionally have been sentenced to training school being placed in the care of children's aid societies. At the same time sufficient resources have not been made available to the children's aid societies to enable them to care for this group of young people.

The failure to plan for adequate programmes in income maintenance and housing can have drastic consequences. At a staff conference at the Sudbury Children's Aid Society in 1973, one of the writer's colleagues discovered that nearly half of the children taken into the care of the Society was attributable to the lack of low income housing in that city.

And the report referred to above
makes clear that inadequate
provisions under General Assistance
and Family Benefits, combined with
the inavailability of low income housing,
have contributed to many mothers being
unable to care for their children,
and voluntarily requesting C.A.S. care.
Thus, the failure to plan for adequate
social programmes in certain areas has
resulted in, as a direct consequence,
the utilization of other, less
appropriate and in some instances,
more expensive social programmes.

Finally, the involvement of three levels of government
can result in inadequate programmes and in confusion for
consumers. Inadequacies are particularly evident in
services for the aged. As Rose comments in a paper on
social planning:

The whole question of accommodation for
the elderly in London, Ontario has clearly
not involved a serious or significant
degree of social planning but rather a
significant degree of quasi independent
decision making on the part of major
elements of government of Ontario. The
result is that, within a period of two
years, there is substantial difficulty
in the housing programme for elderly
people.[16]

And nowhere is confusion more evident than in the housing field.
A recent report of the Toronto Planning Department outlines a
total of 32 separate housing programmes underway in Ontario
and at one point makes a cautious recommendation:

Coordination and classification of the
roles of the Neighbourhood Improvement
Programme, the Residential Rehabilitation
Assistance Programme and the Ontario
Home Renewal Plan would appear necessary.
In any area where a number of government
programmes are in operation it is critical
that residents be aware of the roles
and terms of each in order to avoid
confusion and overlap. It would be
helpful to have all the programmes
under the coordination (control) of
the agency.[17]

The Issues of Knowledge, Legitimacy and Resources

The preceding discussion has argued that social planning in Ontario has been characterized by an emphasis on programme planning. Programmes have been planned in large part at the provincial level and on a ministry basis. The reasons for the provincial domination of programme planning are, of course, that the province possesses the resources and constitutional mandate to provide social and health services. The situation can be roughly summed up as one where local groups, agencies and municipal governments are most cognizant of local problems but lack the finances, resources, the mandate and, in some instances, the capacity and willingness to undertake social planning. In turn, the provincial government has the resources and the mandate but lacks the knowledge of local problems, and the legitimacy which is often required for implementation.

The knowledge applied to social planning undertaken at Queen's Park is inevitably restricted to that possessed by senior government officials, outside consultants and politicians. A direct consequence of this is that provincial proposals developed at Queen's Park sometimes ignore the needs and priorities of local communities and, in addition, do not take advantage of the considerable experience and knowledge accumulated by the residents, professionals and politicians at the community level. And there is increasing support for the notion that community residents and consumers of service are in a unique position to identify the problems and needs which face them.

While legitimacy is certainly required at the provincial level in order to "sell" plans and proposals, the consequence of provincially centered planning is that programmes are imposed by fiat on local communities. Since changes proposed from outside are frequently resisted, provincial programmes are often greeted with suspicion if not downright hostility. The recent furor over daycare may be cited as an example of a programme planned by provincial officials with insufficient attention to the opinions of those involved in daycare. Community funds of goodwill are often utilized to mount resistance to provincial programmes; while this may be necessary on some occasions, it would seem more appropriate to utilize time and effort for more constructive

purposes. Thus local planning efforts could be devoted
to developing proposals and programmes in response to local
needs and in line with provincial policies.

Two examples follow:

A provincial proposal to convert a former
tuberculosis sanitarium into a centre
for the mentally retarded in Sudbury was
opposed by the local association for the
mentally retarded. This group favoured
developing small community based
residences for the retarded.

Similarly a provincial plan to expand
the Aurora institution for the mentally
ill was rejected by groups in that town.
Again the local groups felt that large
institutions for the mentally ill should
be avoided in favour of foster and group
home settings.

III. A Middle Range Policy for Social Planning

The discussion to this point has argued that social
planning in Ontario has been disconnected and disjointed
because of the absence of any guiding policies. Programmes
have been planned, administrative planners have allocated
funds and staff among these programmes and a limited amount
of attention has been given to locality development and
advocacy planning particularly by the voluntary sector.
It is now necessary to examine whether reform-oriented
social policies of the kind discussed earlier are possible,
necessary and desirable. The three questions regarding
possibility, necessity and desirability are taken from a
not dissimilar essay by John Seeley. In discussing central
planning (or what in the terms used here would be social
policy) Seeley states:

Let me structure what I take to be the
logical order of assessment. Presumably
the first question is whether (such) a scheme
is impossible or possible. If it is
impossible we have no further problem
or choice. If it is possible we may be
told that the scheme is necessary ... or
unnecessary. If it is necessary, debate
must center about details. If it is un-
necessary the question of desirability is
raised. If it is undesirable we have settled
the question. If it is desirable we may wish
to make such a judgment conditionally or
unconditionally.[18]

There would seem to be at least three reasons to
argue that reform-oriented social policies are not possible.
First, despite the myth that democratic governments rule in
the interest of the majority, and that equal opportunity
exists for all who contribute to and participate in the
representative parliamentary system, there is little doubt
that elite groups enjoy a disproportionate amount of
influence in Canada. The evidence for this assertion is
readily available. Income distribution has remained
unchanged in Canada despite developments in income
maintenance; participation in political parties and in
opportunities to stand for election is largely
restricted to those from middle and upper-classes; monetary
and staff support available to political parties comes from
business and is given to the parties which businessmen expect
will continue things as they are. In short, one compelling
reason for the impossibility of change is that the political
and economic circles are dominated by those who believe
that change is not desirable.

A second compelling reason is that the majority of
citizens agree with the political and economic elite. One
can argue that they lack information and do not recognize
that the existing policies are responsible for such
conditions as the disparities in income distribution. One
can argue further that since many low income citizens do
not trouble to vote that voting records do not reveal their
wishes. Nevertheless the present priorities are supported
by the only tangible indicator available - who gets elected.

Thirdly, a reform-oriented social policy not only
lacks mass support but it also fails in not being able to
specify what the "right ordering of relationships
among men are,"[19] and what the consequences of the reforms
would be. Calls for policies which would enable all people
to develop to the limits of their capacity are admirable
but not very helpful. In short, the limits of knowledge
constitute severe impediments to mapping out the state
of the future, and conflicting opinions confound efforts to
arrive at consensus regarding the desired state of affairs.

Fundamental reforms are, therefore, impossible to
implement at the present and the questions of necessity and
desirability are largely irrelevant. But the debate
around these questions must continue for only through
widespread discussion of necessity and desirability of
change will emerge some awareness of the consequences of

existing, although not always clearly expressed, social
policy.

Toward a Middle Range Social Policy

At a lower level of abstraction, social policy involves
the development of guiding principles to guide the direction
of programme and administrative planning, locality development
and advocacy planning. Middle range social policy operates
within the imperatives of society as it is and makes no
direct challenges to these values and traditions. It
recognizes that first order changes are properly the domain
of public wishes and of the representative parliamentary
system, however invalid the perception of the citizens may
be and however inaccurately the parliamentary system may rep-
resent these wishes. It is content with the lesser charge
of introducing coherence to the development of social
programmes through the identification of core themes. One
can, of course, hope that in time there is also the possibility
the latent effects of such middle range policies will
provide sufficient security and encouragement to a
variety of citizens that they may be able to take on the
task of questioning and even challenging the direction
currently being given by first order social policies.

Is a Middle Range Social Policy Possible?

Since middle range social policy does not directly
challenge the basic imperatives of society and since it does
not pretend to predict and achieve desired future states,
it is suggested here that it is possible. Identifying the
guiding principles will be difficult, but as will be
noted later, there are a number of principles which are
emerging at the provincial level. Securing agreement
on these principles will be even more difficult in view
of the number of organizations involved in social planning
and the provision of services. However, the provincial
government possesses a number of incentives to persuade
regional, municipal and voluntary agencies to follow its
lead. One incentive is, of course, that of money.
Secondly, provincial government can legislate changes
in the mandates of both provincial and regional departments.
The provincial government could, for example, decide to
integrate the Family Benefits and General Assistance
programmes and decide on either provincial or regional
administration of the new programme. A third resource
is that certain ministries within the provincial government
have already begun the process of identifying directions
for policy and Policy Fields exist to concert the
programmes of individual ministries.

The crucial question is, of course, whether the provincial government will choose to exercise a leadership role. But again the establishment and recommendations of a number of task forces within the provincial government indicate a search for a leadership role.

It is then concluded here that a middle range social policy is possible, and the discussion now turns to the next order of assessment; is middle range policy necessary? This question can be answered with dispatch. Both the first and second sections of this paper have pointed to the consequences of the programmes being planned in isolation from one another, and the precise purpose of middle range social policy is to overcome this deficiency.

The third order of questioning concerns the desirability of middle range policy. Conceivably both the questions of possibility and necessity may be resolved affirmatively but without evidence that a policy is desirable it may not attract sufficient support to be implemented. To this point few details have been provided of middle range social policy, and in order to provide the evidence required to judge desirability, the salient characteristics of this kind of social policy are presented below.

The central concern of "policy" is the struggle to define problems and to suggest directions for planning efforts. And middle range social policy is no exception. It may prove difficult for those engaged in middle range policy to remain aloof from involvement in specific aspects of programme planning. Indeed, one of the chief difficulties experienced in the development, implementation and administration of social programmes has been the excessive preoccupation with rules and regulations. Certain programmes require explicit regulations. But as many critics of social policy have pointed out, these programmes can be devised in such a way that the interpretation of the regulations is not completely dependent on the whims and frailties of human discretion.[20] Thus income maintenance programmes with varying requirements for eligibility can be administered on a computerized basis.

Other programmes do not demand detailed sets of detailed rules. In fact, such specification may render impossible the need to match programmes to the particular needs and preferences of local communities. In addition, as Robert Levine argues, numerous interpretations serve to obscure and change the original thrust of a programme.

Planners and administrators at the
top lay out the basic rules as general
guidelines; the middle level administrators
make them into detailed rules of procedure;
the operators at the bottom must apply
them by interpretation based on
administrative discretion.

In this process of interpretation the
original policy objectives more often
than not get lost or even revised.
Ordinarily they are not changed
around by malfeasance but by honest
attempts at interpretation with each
attempt a little bit off and
the cumulated result far from the
intended objective.[21]

Levine's central point, both from his experiences
in social policy and his analysis of a variety of public
policy areas, is that most human service programmes are
constrained rather than assisted by detailed sets
of regulations. In attempting to ensure accountability
and uniformity, rules end up doing neither. Levine's
view is that most human service programmes would be improved
if competition was encouraged both in the provision of
services and through the establishment of contervailing
forces to criticize public programmes.

Whether one accepts Levine's recommendations in
total or not, his analysis and arguments have definite relevance
to the discussion of middle range policy in Ontario. Middle
range policy in this province might, for example, utilize
existing structures for social planning and develop new
structures, rather than insisting that all planning efforts
be conducted under the auspices of the provincial
government. Such a policy would recognize that opinion
as to what constitutes a social problem does vary and that
out of this difference of opinion will emerge divergent
recommendations regarding problem resolution. In the
long run diversity may prove to be more beneficial than
attempting to contain social planning within a single
structure.

To illustrate but one possible application of this
suggestion, the provincial government might consider the
following. The responsibility for developing middle
range policy would rest with the Social Development
Policy Field in cooperation with its ministries. The district

offices of various ministries could then be allocated resources to:

(a) Undertake programme planning in line with the policy thrusts identified by the province.

(b) Support local citizens in locality development efforts geared to securing the participation of residents in determining the needs of their locality. Such efforts should, in time, lead to the capacity to plan for the quality of life in local areas; to determine the need for greater space and recreational areas as opposed to industrial development and high rise apartments; to participate in the development of community residences for the mentally ill and the retarded; to become involved in the quality of education and the use of schools.

These suggestions are in accord with those made in a number of the district office reports in the Planning for Social Planning Project. In reading the reports from the western area of the Ministry of Community and Social Services the author was impressed by the consistency around the need to "support social planning in whatever structures it is taking place."

It is useful to introduce at this point mention of a recent book on Social Planning and Social Change.[22] This study argues that the social problems originate in the social environment - in the relationships people have with one another and with their environment. Hence one way to proceed to bring about changes is to develop awareness of the consequences of relationships. Does, for example, delegating certain individuals to skid row or building segregated housing for low income and the elderly contribute to social problems? The tentative conclusion of this book is that such developments are contributory factors, and that a mix of housing patterns is desirable.

The intention is not to reiterate the arguments contained in this study, but to point out that knowledge of such studies and of the insights they provide can assist in planning for the quality of life. A main contribution of the professional in the planning process is to sift through reports of research and practice

undertaken in other cities, provinces, and countries and to communicate the relevance of these experiences to citizen groups and politicians.

Finally, to conclude the argument for the desir-ability of middle range policy some examples of principles which would serve as bench marks for programme development need to be mentioned. Admittedly this listing is a personal one, but several of the following principles have emerged in the Planning for Social Planning for Social Planning Project.

Accessibility of Services

The district office reports and many studies of social services have documented the lack of access to services in both rural and urban areas. Typically, services are provided in a single location and consumers are expected to visit the office to obtain services. Certainly sufficient experimentation in Toronto and London and other areas of the province has demonstrated that if agencies station workers in schools, neighbourhood libraries and shopping centres and other convenient and non-stigmatized locations, consumers will use services to a far greater extent than under existing arrangements. Further, staff placed in neighbourhoods become aware of environmental conditions and can assist residents to mobilize themselves to overcome some adverse conditions. Finally, it seems probable that such staffing arrangements encourage consumers to contact agency personnel at an early stage in the development of problems. Neighbourhood-based staff come to be known and trusted and intervention is possible prior to problems reaching a crisis point. Thus, accessibility is conducive to secondary level prevention - dealing with problems at an early stage.

Accountability and Evaluation

A major weakness in the existing arrangements for planning human services is the lack of provision for accountability and evaluation. To whom does the dissatisfied consumer present his complaints? Agency boards and senior public officials are often inaccessible to consumers, and more importantly, mechanisms of redress have in many instances simply not been developed. An exception to this statement is the Provincial Board of Review, designed to hear appeals around income maintenance programmes. Similar mechanisms might be

developed in the form of ombudsmen in the fields of
mental health and family and child welfare. A second
method of ensuring accountability lies in the inclusion
of consumers on boards and advisory committees. This
provides an opportunity for consumers to present their
views on the ways in which services are delivered. Thirdly,
the work of advocacy planning groups can assist in
ensuring that services are adequate and appropriate.

The evaluation of social programmes is in its
infancy. Without doubt it is a time-consuming and
difficult process. Nevertheless it is also urgent
that programmes be evaluated, and there are some recent
studies which can serve as examples of the evaluation
procedures and of the limitation of evaluation
research.

A middle range policy would emphasize the need
for accountability and evaluation as integral parts
of the planning for new programmes, and could restrict
financial support to programmes being developed outside
the Ministry to those which provide for accountability
and evaluation.

Coherence

A major portion of this paper has been devoted to
an examination of the reasons for and consequences of
the lack of coherence in social planning which exists
at the present time. A middle range policy for social
planning must emphasize the necessity of providing for
coherent planning efforts. Given the previous inclusion
of the principle of accessibility it is readily apparent
that achieving coherence will continue to pose difficulties.
A number of strategies suggest themselves:

(1) Programme planning at the district level
could be routed through the district office.
The responsibility for screening new proposals
for coherence would be with the staff at the
district office.

(2) At the delivery level the multi-service
centre concept can partially compensate for
the fragmentation of services provided
by a number of different and independent
organizations. It should be recognized
that merely grouping personnel from
different agencies in a common location cannot

offset problems brought about by the
lack of coherence at the planning and policy
levels, but it can enhance cooperative
activity between direct service workers and
improve accessibility of services. As
noted previously "coordination" is
notoriously difficult to achieve even
within a single organization. Since the
Ministry of Community and Social Services
has developed a paper on multi-service
centres, and in view of the amount of
information that is readily available on this
subject in the literature, it is unnecessary
to pursue the multi-service centre concept
further here except to suggest that it could
be utilized as a guiding principle in middle
range social policy.

3.   By far the most important strategy to achieve
coherence is through legislation at provincial
and federal levels. A middle range policy
should immediately identify where coherence
can be improved through new legislation.
For example, consideration might be given to
integrating income maintenance legislation
under the provisions of the Canada Assistance
Plan; the community care programmes of
the Ministries of Community and Social
Services, Health, and Corrections might
be integrated into one programme
administered by one ministry; the
relationship of the family courts and
children's aid societies particularly
with regard to the case of adolescents
needs to be examined in depth. These
examples indicate the dire necessity to
undertake a close review of programme
coherence if improvements are to be
made.

Some Concluding Comments

This paper has been written on the assumption
that Ontario is not about to follow Quebec and British
Columbia in developing a province-wide structure for
the planning and provision of social and health services.
Whether the Quebec and British Columbia restructurings

are positive or negative is largely a value question at
this time since insufficient time has elapsed to permit
even informed speculation about the success of these
new arrangements. Indeed there may be advantages in
other provinces deliberately refraining from following
the British Columbia and Quebec examples so that different
patterns can be evaluated in Canada.

However, if Ontario is to improve its social and
health services, the Social Development Policy Field
and its ministries must become aware of the need to
continually grapple with the issues in social planning
discussed in this and other papers prepared for the
Green Paper on Social Planning. It has to be
recognized that social planning in all its various forms
constitutes a major vehicle for the resolution of social
problems. The entire process of preparing a Green Paper
can be viewed as a way of assisting the staff of the
Ministry and of other social agencies, politicians,
consumers and citizens to recognize the significance
of social planning and the constraints under which it
currently operates.

FOOTNOTES (Wharf)

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Reseach for Planning

Reseach Committee

Research for Planning

        Research is one of the necessary supports of
planned social change. In the context of social planning,
research means systematic and reliable fact-finding, with
verifiable and communicable results. Research is an
organized, scientific, and parsimonious search for
answers to questions about the social problems of our
time. As well, it is a means to verify that the right
questions are being asked. Beneath its technological
facade of statistics and special words, research is
parsimonious in several ways. It can reduce social
problems to their most basic terms, abstracting main
trends from a chaotic jumble of events. It can free
planning from repeating the mistakes of the past. And,
at the same time, it can build on the best of the past
and on future expectations to project new solutions to
social problems.

        This paper surveys the present state of research,
its problems, and some of its more promising developments
which may point the way for the future. As well, some
improvements in the Ontario social planning research
field are proposed. The topic is treated from the
perspective of the actual or likely consumer of such research
services (i.e., the person involved or interested in social
planning).

        Pure or basic research is motivated by intellectual
curiosity or an interest in building theory. Only co-
incidentally does it have application to planning. Applied
research, on the other hand, can be directed specifically
at social planning.

        Four kinds of applied research activities contribute
to planning. First, there is a great demand for analyses
of existing census and survey data and programme records.
Second, research literature must be thoroughly searched
to maintain our store of knowledge from past experience.
The proliferation of published materials, often referred
to as the "knowledge explosion," has altered the scale

and complexity of literature searching and has escalated
the planning need for immediate access to existing knowledge.
The third kind of relevant research activity takes the form
of demonstration or action projects which combine research
and development. This is where planning results in an
experimental course of action, and research is needed to
evaluate its outcomes. The fourth type of applied
research activity is the conventional research project.
It is usually restricted to long-range planning needs,
because of the several years often required to complete
such original research.

Present State of Research

Social planning presently receives little research
support because of the small scale of funding of social
research in general. Few figures on research expenditures
are available. The Report of the Health Planning Task
Force ("Mustard Report") gives 2.20% as the current rate
of expenditure on research in the Ontario Ministry of
Health, and recommends that that be increased to a target
level of 4.50%. Target levels of expenditure on research
and development are common practice in industry. Since
research is necessary to sustain good social planning,
it may be useful to set a target for research expenditures.

The basic problems in providing research to support
social planning reflect the higher level problems facing
social planning itself. With changing times and
reorganizations, organizations are asking each other about
roles generally in social planning and specifically in
research support. Uncertainty in the public sector leaves
the private sector uncertain about its role. In this
situation of overlapping spheres of responsibility, there
is a lack of definition of respective roles which can
inhibit planning.

In addition to the uncertainty about who should be
doing what, there remains the basic question as to whether
coordination of research is necessary. It is easy to
assume that coordination is a good thing in itself. But
when one goes on to specify what coordination could be
expected to achieve, the way is cleared to discover
the courses of action necessary to improve on the present
situation. Behind the interest of coordination are four

concerns:

(1)   How can a planning group find out what
        data and social statistics are available?

(2)   How does a planning group find out what
        research has already been done or is
        underway on a particular kind of
        social need or service?

(3)   How can a planning group set priorities
        for the research that it would like to
        see undertaken and influence the
        selections made by research funding bodies?

(4)   How can a planning group locate the
        individuals or organizations most capable
        of conducting the necessary research?

These concerns arise from the recognition of the
repetitive nature of much research (e.g., studies completed
in one jurisdiction being repeated unwittingly by other
jurisdictions, or studies underway being duplicated by a
different auspice). The costs here include the failure to
learn from mistakes made doing the same research in the
past, as well as the failure to produce valid and reliable
knowledge because of low quality design and inadequate
sample size. The proliferation of low grade studies makes
it difficult even to know what to classify as research.

The present state of research for social planning
reflects a relatively low level of spending and a lack
of coordination. The resulting research tends to be
inaccessible, fragmented, and lacking in continuity. The
need for coordination can be summed up in the question:
"When are we going to stop reinventing the wheel?"

Existing Coordination and Linkages

Recognition of the need for coordination draws
attention to current and potential linkages between the
several sectors involved in social planning research:
provincial, municipal, library, and university and
especially to the initiatives tending to promote coordination.
There is a logical choice here, between accepting the present

situation of relatively uncoordinated research is beyond
repair or identifying existing linkages and coordinating
mechanisms which could prove suitable for expansion.   This
paper takes a positive approach and focuses on hopeful
new developments.

Universities.   Universities, and the centers and institutes
associated with them, are traditional loci of research.
Although their standards of excellence may be high,
their research currently has little direct application to
the needs of social planning.   In time, concerted planning
objectives and increased availability of funding may bring
more university research to bear on planning concerns.

        What is important about university research, however,
is information coordination to find out what colleagues
have investigated or are studying.   At the national level,
the Social Science Research Council (SSRC) helps
coordinate university research and provide links to other
sectors.   Of particular interest is its data clearing
house, established jointly with the Association of Colleges
and Universities.   This institution inventories and indexes
quantitative data in machine readable form which is in the
possession of researchers, universities, private and public
organizations, and governments.   It is developing a co-
ordinating role in relation to the data archives and
repositories across Canada, but does not hold data itself.
The SSRC consitutes the nine Canadian learned societies,
and is funded by the Canada Council and various universities.

Libraries.   A far-reaching revolution is taking place in
the library field.   The automation of catalogues is well-
advanced, with the National Library of Canada as central
depository for all Canadian publications.   Its automated
catalogue ("CAN/SDI") provides current awareness service
and retrospective searches of the literature, including
the Library of Congress collection, by linkage with a
system called MARC II.   The system is little used by people
engaged in social planning, perhaps because few know of its
existence and because of their unfamiliarity with such
trappings of the computer age as keyword thesauri (i.e.,
the standardized vocabulary used to interact with the
computerized system).   Faster and more comprehensive
searches are done for a fraction of the cost of searching
by hand.   This yields only references on the subjects
being searched, however, and not further textual detail.

The Institute for Behavioural Research of York
University has a Social Science Information System which
gives summaries as well as references, but for only a
small fraction of the holdings accessed by CAN/SDI.
Automated storage and retrieval of complete texts is in operation
in the Quic Law Information System. Developed at Queen's
University, this system is now located in Ottawa. It has
two sets of textual data bases, law and natural environment.
All federal statutes, regulations, and law reports can be
searched "on-line" and sections containing any mention of the
subject being searched are displayed for immediate reading
on the spot. Up-dating is facilitated by automated publishing
by the Queen's Printer of gazettes and law reports (i.e.,
the computer tape used for printing is re-used to feed the
texts into the information system).

These examples give some idea of what is available
now and what will soon be available on a larger scale to the
readers of research literature who need more efficient ways
of finding what they want.

Urban research. At the national level, the Canadian Council for
Urban and Regional Research has an automated indexing system
which produces a comprehensive bibliography with annotations.
The consolidation is called URBAN AND REGIONAL REFERENCES,
1945 to 1969, and there are annual supplements. It has been
receiving grants from the Department of Urban Affairs, but
is changing to an open membership with organizational and
individual subscription. A useful and distinctive feature
is the geographic index which lists research by specific
locality. The Council is not a depository, but all the listed
items are available through the National Library. Other
services of the Council include project support, seminars,
and news bulletins on research.

Provincial coordination. There is another example of an
initiative in coordination at the provincial level: The
Ontario Research Council on Leisure (ORCOL). ORCOL,
formed, in 1971 to promote and coordinate leisure and recreation
research, is funded by the Ontario Government. Its function
is advisory and its members are drawn from the several
levels of government, universities, and voluntary
agencies. Its coordinating techniques are:

     (1)   Meetings;

     (2)   Publication of a periodical containing news
         about research underway or recently completed;

(3)   A DELPHI approach to priority setting in
      preparation. (DELPHI is a statistical
      method for identifying consensus among
      experts; it permits a broader base of
      participation than conventional discussion
      modes).

ORCOL is an example of a research council at the
provincial level, one which is specific to the leisure field
of interest but which involves both public and private sectors.
Its perspective goes well beyond that of older research
councils, which have been more narrowly preoccupied with
making selections for grants.

Problems

The recent developments in university, library, urban,
and Provincial Government research activities represent
some progress. They have facilitated a faster and more
comprehensive retrieval of past research in order to use
the findings and to improve the design of future research.
But other problems still remain, problems which have received
little attention.

Perhaps the most acute problem for the person involved
or interested in social planning is the relative lack of
access to data and social statistics, and their fragmentation
and discontinuity. Different organizations hold different
sets of data but make little use of each other's data.
Perhaps this is a reflection of the unresolved problem
in social planning of little coordination among the several
jurisdictions involved.

The developing automated indexing or cataloguing
systems have the potential to meet the problem of finding
out what research has been done. But these new systems
are only receiving limited use at the Provincial level and
in universities, and elsewhere there is little awareness of
or access to these systems. A large gap seems to exist
between local people involved in planning activities and
more centrally located people who have the expertise to
teach and guide the uninitiated in the use of automated
searching systems.

Advice and consultation on the conduct of research appears to be the most remote from those who need it most. While universities and colleges provide some dispersion of the necessary expertise, most of it is concentrated in Toronto, in, for example, the Ontario Welfare Council, the Bureau of Municipal Research, and the Ministries of the Ontario Government. Furthermore, the available expertise may be too specialized to be capable of servicing planning efforts directly.

Priority setting is a problem at all levels. How can decisions about the focus of research be influenced to meet some of the needs of social planning? While this problem is beginning to receive some attention at the provincial level (ORCOL) with respect to leisure research, it has been neglected in the social service fields. This problem can be illustrated in the context of funding for demonstration projects. Funds are available for community projects from private foundations and all levels of government. These funding agencies are all potential sources of funds for certain kinds of research needed for social planning, particularly demonstration and action research projects. However, criticisms are heard at all levels that few projects are directed to the important planning issues. Part of the difficulty in determining relevant priorities may stem from implicit or non-existent funding criteria and from a lack of coordination among the funding agencies.

A related problem is the disparity in the distribution of research between the different parts of the Province. The most obvious difficulty is fair allocation of demonstration grants to various localities. There can also be disparities in testing new programmes and in evaluation of existing services, which form part of the research efforts bearing on social planning. While much of the complex, larger scale research is not inherently locality specific (unlike the above research activities), there remains the problem of ensuring that the planning needs of all parts of the Province are met in selecting and designing such research.

One more problem is finding out who has the capacity to do what research. How can a planning body find out what individual or institution is best able to carry out the particular research assignments it requires? There appears to be no systematic way of doing this, and there are scarcely

any initiatives in this direction. The exception is
Environment Canada's Outdoor Recreation - Open Space Reference
System which includes a personnel reference file which can
be
access to advice and consultation may meet some of this
need; talent banks and calls for proposals (tendering)
may also help.

        The problems discussed are especially acute for the
voluntary sector. Historically, the voluntary sector has
produced several outstanding examples of policy or action
research: the cost of living studies of two decades ago;
the participatory needs and resources surveys; and, more
recently, housing studies. These studies were integral
to social reform efforts involving social comment, critical
analysis, and advocacy. However, the voluntary sector has
mainly been involved in prolific but small-scale and
elementary designed studies. Very few of its distributed
reports have reached published status. Consequently, only
a few are deposited in the National Library and, thereby,
made accessible with automated indexing. Annual listings
are published by both the Canadian Council on Social Development
(Project Information Exchange) and the Department of National
Health and Welfare (Inventory of Welfare Research). However,
these listings are an inefficient, cumbersome, and quickly
outdated way of finding out what research voluntary
community agencies have been or are doing throughout the
Province.

        Six general problems have been identified in this
section. First, social data and statistics are in great
demand but their use is restricted by lack of access,
fragmentation, and discontinuity. Second, the automated
systems for searching the literature on research are
underused. Third, advice and consultation on research
appear most remote from those who need them most. Fourth,
setting priorities for research relevant to social planning
has received little, if any, attention. Fifth, there is
a disparity in the influence of the different parts of
the Province on the selection and design of research.
Sixth, scarcely any inventories of the capacities of
individuals and institutions for doing research exist.

Possibilities for Improvement

The suggested improvements which follow can be weighed by two principles. The first relates to the links among those doing research and the second to the links between planning bodies and the information produced by research. The underlying key assumption is that any coordinated system should be visible and accessible to less advantaged planning groups.

First, research alternatives should be judged in terms of the extent to which they link together the different groups doing research relevant to social planning. This is important in that a sense of partnership and shared research capacity foster economy of effort. Second, alternatives should be judged in terms of the extent to which they provide linkage between groups involved in social planning and make accessible information relevant to social planning. There should be cooperation between research experts and people with planning responsibilities, and conversion of research data into useful and understandable information for planning applications.

Six ways of improving the present situation are recommended. They can be implemented singly or in combination. The chart provides a summary of the six possible improvements arranged to distinguish social planning needs, linkage functions, and research knowledge and expertise. For the most part the linkage functions refer to intermediate capacities that do not now exist. The linkage suggestions provide a hypothetical alternative to the present pattern of local groups seeking research assistance directly from central research establishments. The objective is to bring specialized central resources closer to local needs.

1. Social data and statistics. The greatest research need expressed by people concerned with social planning is for social data and statistics. Depositories or banks of quantitative data from the census, other surveys, and programme case records are necessary sources of social statistics. The prospect of a single, fully comprehensive data bank or universal system is somewhat removed into the future for the multi-jurisdictional situations of social planning and social research. A more immediate alternative is to distribute inventories or annual directories of who has what data, using a functional and geographic matrix.

This should encourage sharing and fuller use of data.

Substantial sets of machine-readable data exist.
These form the dispersed data base on which so much research
is dependent. The first step to render this accessible
for research is to prepare a common inventory or index.
The second step is to develop the service capability of
centers where data is deposited so that requests for
special analysis can be met with information in readily
interpretable format. Quality control is an important
function to develop in data centers and to communicate to
users through the advice and consultation capability.
Eventually provincial data centers can be expected to conduct
surveys expressly designed to meet planning needs; this
kind of survey capability is analogous to that of
Statistics Canada at the National level.

2. Research advice and consultation. Staff capacity is
needed at an intermediate level to link local social
planning bodies and central specialized research expertise.
This might be better accomplished through a staff training
and development effort than through adding another staff
specialty. The auspice of such staff need not
necessarily be the same from one locality to another, nor
should it be confined to one sector. This kind of staff
development is needed in the field offices of the several
levels of government and in the voluntary planning councils
and other private agencies concerned with planning. This
role is more appropriate for programme specialists,
consultants, and administrators than for full-time research
specialists.

What is important is access to prompt and convenient
service. Reference has been made to the proliferation of
repetitive low quality research and this applies especially
to surveys. Too many surveys get underway before the basic
problem or question is identified. A large part of the advice
and consultation role would be clarifying problems for which
research has mistakenly been assumed to be the answer.
A related function would be referring people with social
planning concerns to research specialists with the appropriate
expertise. It is a broad role which would include helping
people find the data they need, use the automated library
searching systems, and apply for demonstration and
development project funds. Another important function would

be evaluating the quality of research design and results
and interpreting technical, hard-to-comprehend writing.
This is an important aspect of the conversion of research
findings into information useful for planning.

Eventually there should be an organized referral
network to bring this advice and consultation service
to every sector of the population and to each part of
the Province. Ultimately college courses may be developed
to train professionals in consultative skills (both
giving and receiving).

3. Library access. Searching the research literature
is essential for appropriate decisions on the need for original
research and for research designs which profit from previous
experience. Automation of library catalogues brings fast,
full, and inexpensive retrospective searches within the
reach of most social planning concerns. But there is a
developmental and linking function to be performed
initially at the intermediate level, a function which
could be combined with that of advice and consultation.
People must be made aware of and guided in the use of
the automated services that are now available. In the
near future computer terminals for direct access to
reference catalogues will become widespread. And,
eventually, much of the full textual information will
become directly accessible as well.

4. Demonstration and development projects. For people
concerned with social planning the need for demonstration
and development project support is second only to the need
for social data and statistics. Such funds are available
from the several levels of government, foundations, and other
private sources. From the standpoint of the person
involved in social planning the sources of project
funds suffer from inaccessibility, fragmentation, and
discontinuity. Consequently increments in funds should be
accompanied by more effective liaison among the funding
bodies and by harmonization between planning efforts and
innovations in community services. Liaison between
social planning and sources of project funds can improve
project selection and increase compatibility between projects
and planning efforts. Eventually, objective distributive

criteria for this kind of project funding should be
developed.

5. State of the region social reports. An anticipatory
alternative to ad hoc research is social trend reporting
which analyzes data as soon as it is available. Techniques
such as computer mapping have been developed for converting
mass files of quantitative data into information useful for
planning purposes. An example of social reporting is the
"Prototype State-of-the-Region Report for Los Angeles
County" which was developed by the School of Architecture
and Urban Planning of the University of California at
Los Angeles. This is a way of meeting the more predictable
research needs of a broad band of planning interests.

        The immediate step to begin to meet the need
for this kind of research service is to increase distribution
of existing social reports to the planning interests.
In the near future digests and reports specifically designed
for use in planning can be made available. Eventually
there may be original data from surveys designed specifically
for social reporting rather than so much reliance on data
collected for other purposes. Social reporting depends
very heavily on Provincial Government initiative.

6. Research council. Proliferation of advisory bodies at
local and intermediate levels is not a viable way of
bringing research support to social planning. However, at
the provincial level the creation of one or two research
councils does warrant consideration. Councils such as the
Ontario Research Council on Leisure can advise on the
relevance and quality of research. One or more councils
could bring coherence in a like manner to child and family
research and to the rehabilitation and care of the aged
and disabled. There is a choice between one general council,
and several parallel councils specializing in different
domains or fields of interest. The multifold alternative
could permit variations in organization and auspices from
one to another.

        While initially a council would react to the project
proposals brought to it, eventually it would need to review
the full gamut of research programmes and initiate calls
for project proposals tailored to meet specified social
goals. Eventually it could be involved in the development
of research priorities and distributive criteria for
project funding.

Chart I: Research Needs and Capacities

Improvements	Social Planning Needs	Linkage Functions	Research Knowledge and Expertise
Social data and statistics	To estimate needs and resources by means of access to data and information available from the census, surveys, programme records, etc.	Capacity to help social planning interest groups to formulate requests; knowledge of the kinds of information available and ability to prepare requests for submission to data banks and information systems	Data banks and information systems; their design and development of expertise in servicing requests for data and information; statistics and data resource centers
Advice and consultation	To use advice and consultation when need for research perceived; to clarify the problem or need	Provision of advice and consultation by staff who have access to research information and are able to make referrals to research experts	Capacity to provide staff development and training for staff with advice and consultation responsibilities at the linkage level
Demonstration and development projects	To experiment in implementing plans and relating innovations to planning objectives	Guide planning interests in applying for funds	Project design and evaluation; preparation of calls for proposals
Automated library access	To articulate community needs and explore alternative solutions using knowledge from parallel experience in the past and in other jurisdictions	Capacity to translate expressions of need into machine-readable requests for retrospective searches of the literature of research	Automated catalogues for searching research literature and systems for retrieval of textual data
Social reports	To assimilate digests of social information and trend reporting	Distribution of periodic social reports and guidance in interpreting such information	Design and preparation of social reports, such as state-of-the-region reports and social trend analyses which anticipate a broad band of planning needs
Research council	To set priorities; in particular to assess relevance	Assemble and communicate opinions and expressions of preferences and information needs	Determine relevance and quality of proposed research by means of research council(s)

Chart II: Objectives for Social Planning Research

Improvements	Short term	Mid term	Long term
Social data and statistics	Inventory of available data sources	Development of social statistics service centers	Design of surveys and linking of data banks
Advice and consultation	Staff development for existing workers in positions to offer advice	Organized referral network	College courses to equip new careerists for this role
Library access	Communications to promote awareness of available automated services	Computer terminals for direct access to reference catalogues	Automated access to full textual data
Demonstration and development projects	Increased funding and liaison between social planning and sources of project funds	Liaison and coordination among the funding bodies	Application of priorities and distributive criteria
Social reports	Distribution of existing documents	Design of social reports for planning uses	Use of original data e.g. surveys, collected primarily for social reporting
Research council	Advisory role re relevance and quality of research proposals	Review of research programmes and initiation of calls for proposals	Development of priorities and distributive criteria